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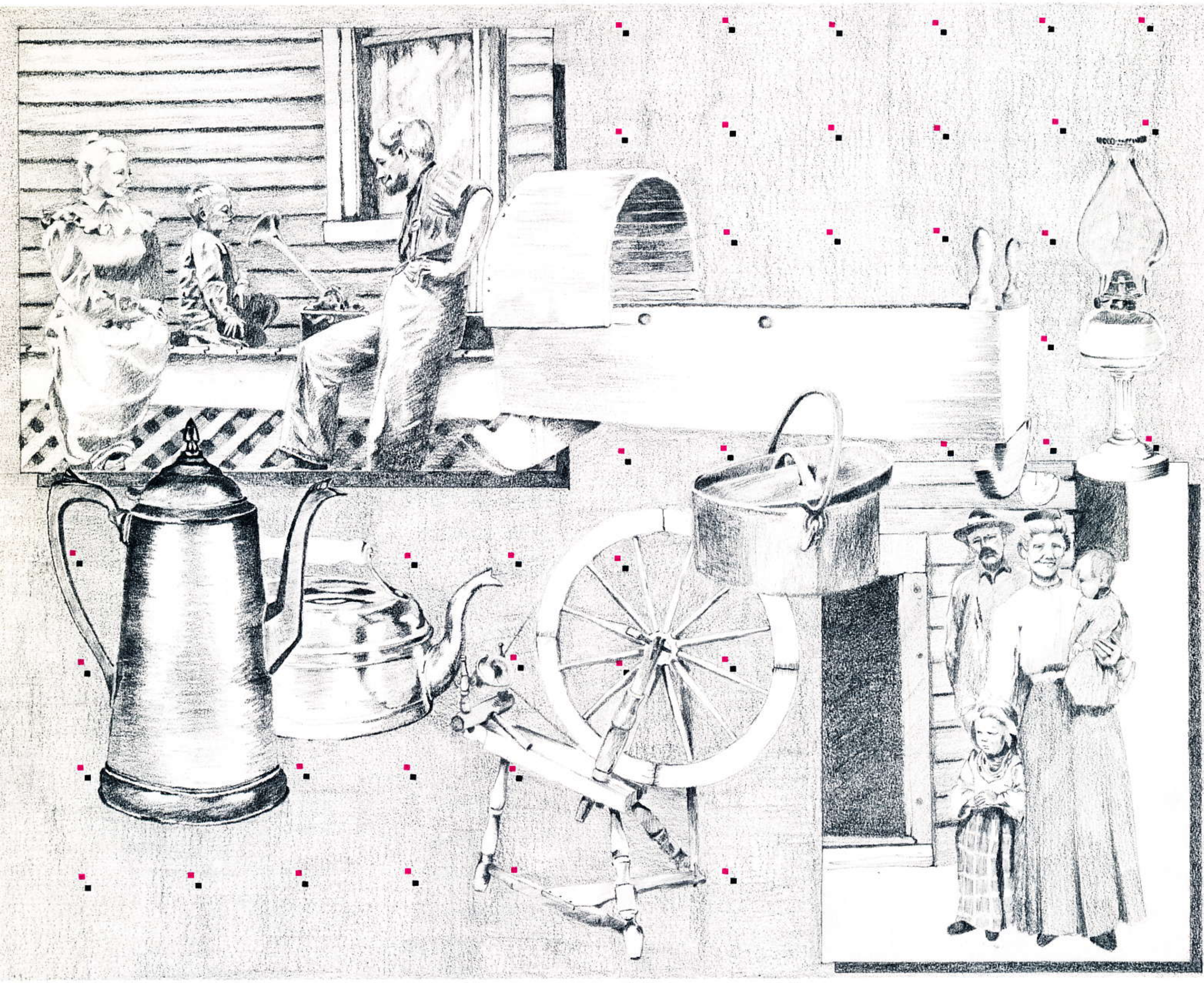

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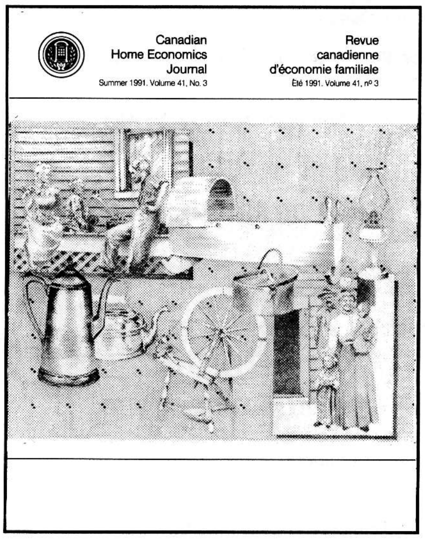

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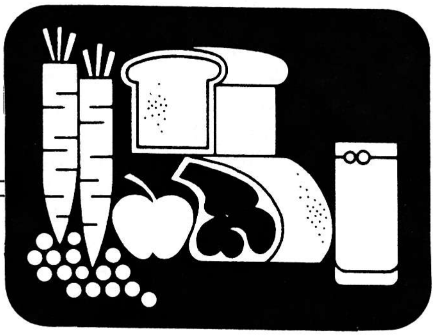
Reliability of Nutrition Information Sources

Irene M. Strychar and Nancy E. Schwartz



Abstract

The first part of this paper describes the perspectives of health professionals, researchers, the media, government, and industry in informing the public about nutrition and its relationship to health. The second part provides guidelines for home economists assisting consumers to determine the reliability of nutrition sources of information. A framework for developing programs designed to combat misinformation is also presented. This framework incorporates the following elements: sources, types, and recipients of the information. Consumers receiving reliable nutrition information can make informed food choices, ultimately leading to improved health status.

Résumé

La première partie de cet article décrit les perspectives de santé contenues dans l'information que le public reçoit des professionnels, des recherchistes, des media, des gouvernements et de l'industrie au sujet de la nutrition et ses relations sur la santé. La deuxième partie de l'article procure un guide pour les économistes familiales qui aident les consommateurs à reconnaître l'exactitude des sources d'information en nutrition. Cette partie procure également une structure servant à préparer des programmes destinés à combattre les faux renseignements qui sont présentées. Cette structure comprend l'incorporation des éléments suivants: les sources et les genres d'information ainsi que les bénéficiaires de l'information. Les consommateurs qui reçoivent de l'information plus précise sur la nutrition peuvent mieux choisir leurs aliments et finalement, améliorer leur condition de santé.

During the past ten years, the word nutrition was launched into the headlines more than in any preceding decade. Consumers are seeking and obtaining nutrition information from a multitude of sources, some reliable others not. As health professionals we have the responsibility to provide consumers with nutrition information consistent with reliable scientific evidence. The purposes of this paper are: 1) to describe the perspectives of health professionals, researchers, the media, government, and industry in informing the public about nutrition and its relationship with health, and 2) to provide guidelines for home economists assisting consumers determine the reliability of nutrition sources of information. The ultimate goal is to assist consumers to make informed nutrition decisions consistent with findings of nutrition research (Gillespie & Shafer, 1990).

Consumers need guidance in the selection of a dietary pattern that will supply recommended amounts of all essential nutrients while reducing the risk for chronic disease. The major nutrition concerns identified by Health and Welfare Canada's Scientific Review Committee (1990a) are obesity and chronic diseases influenced by diet, including heart disease and cancer. Assisting consumers achieve a better understanding of the relationship between diet and health so that they can adopt positive eating habits would be simple if we had one profile of consumers. This is not the case. Consumers are a group of individuals who are aware, interested, confused, misinformed, gullible, and even skeptical about nutrition issues. Any or all of these may apply.

Interest in nutrition is high and intentions are positive; at the same time, consumers are confused about nutrition and health issues. Results from a National Institute of Nutrition study (1990) indicated that the majority of Canadian adults (59%) consider nutrition important when choosing food. Consumers concerned about their fat intake claimed that they were taking action, but they did not seem entirely clear about what they should be doing. Twenty-nine percent reported that they were buying and eating low-fat products, however the

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majority were unable to identify food products with a high fat content. Radio and television were cited as the primary sources from which consumers received nutrition information (70%), followed by magazines (65%), friends/relatives/colleagues (62%), product labels (61%), newspapers and books (60%), physicians (54%), and dietitian-nutritionists (29%). When consumers were asked which sources of nutrition information they could trust, 45% cited the physician and 19% cited the dietitian-nutritionist. Although health professionals were not cited as primary sources of information, they are viewed by consumers as sources to be trusted for accurate and reliable nutrition information.

Consumers are motivated by diet-disease relationships. Major advances in the objective health status of the population in recent years have not been accompanied by substantial improvements in the subjective feeling of health and well-being (Barsky, 1988). This "paradox of health" is further fueled by media-induced paranoia regarding the safety of food.

Results from Canada's Health Promotion Survey (Health and Welfare Canada, 1987) found that 61% of Canadians reported their health is very good or excellent. On the other hand, 39% or nearly eight million adult Canadians feel that their health is good, fair, or poor. Improved nutritional status is an essential component in improving the health of consumers, and providing reliable nutrition information to the public is an important step towards achieving this end.

Perspective of Health Professionals

Health professionals deal with the public on a daily basis and they need practical solutions to practical problems. They also recognize the need for dietary recommendations to plan nutrition programs so as to help inform the public in a proactive manner. To date, many organizations have developed and disseminated dietary guidelines, some focusing on only one disease entity. A single set of dietary guidelines for health promotion and disease risk reduction would minimize confusion among consumers. This set of dietary guidelines is now available with *Canada's Guidelines to Healthy Eating* (Health and Welfare Canada, 1990b). The Communications and Implementation Committee recommend in their report, *Actions Towards Healthy Eating* (Health and Welfare Canada, 1990b) that: 1) all sectors and professionals adopt and promote Canada's Guidelines for Healthy Eating as the single set of nutrition recommendations for communication to the healthy public over two years of age; 2) market testing be conducted on the nutrition messages contained in Canada's Guidelines to Healthy Eating for specific target groups, such as low-literacy groups and ethnic sub-populations; and 3) research be conducted to determine consumers' awareness and understanding of *Canada's Guidelines to Healthy Eating*. In order to reflect the nutrition concerns of Canadians today as well as the new recommendations proposed in *Canada's Guidelines to Healthy Eating*, significant changes are currently being made to Canada's Food Guide, an important educational tool for consumers and communicators of nutrition information.

Health professionals are also concerned that nutrition labelling and health claims can confuse consumers. For example, advertisements about french fries and certain vegetable oils promote these products as being cholesterol free. While they may be cholesterol free, the real concern is high fat content. Over 30% of the calories in french fries and 100% of the calories in oil are derived from fat. At present, the regulation states that: a food may be described as "cholesterol-free" if it contains no more than 3 milligrams cholesterol per 100 grams (Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada, 1988). Also, the food must contain no more than 2 grams of saturated fatty acids per serving and must not derive more than 15% of its energy from saturated fatty acids (Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada, 1988). The regulation should be modified to include a statement limiting the amount of energy derived from total fat. Health professionals must challenge the federal government and exert political pressure to change the legislation to enable consumers to make informed nutrition choices.

There is a growing concern among health professionals for the need to monitor nutrition behaviors and status of Canadians, and their knowledge, attitudes and beliefs on nutrition, and health issues (Woolcott, 1990). There has been no national study of food intake or nutritional status since the Nutrition Canada Survey of 1970-72 (Health and Welfare Canada, 1973). Health professionals must rely on isolated studies or extrapolate from U.S. data. *Apparent per Capital Food Consumption in Canada* and *Family Food Expenditure Data in Canada* (Statistics Canada, 1989) studies provide only gross estimates of food consumption, the former considering national data on disappearance of food and the latter reflecting household food purchases (Health and Welfare Canada, 1990b). Neither source of data reflects actual

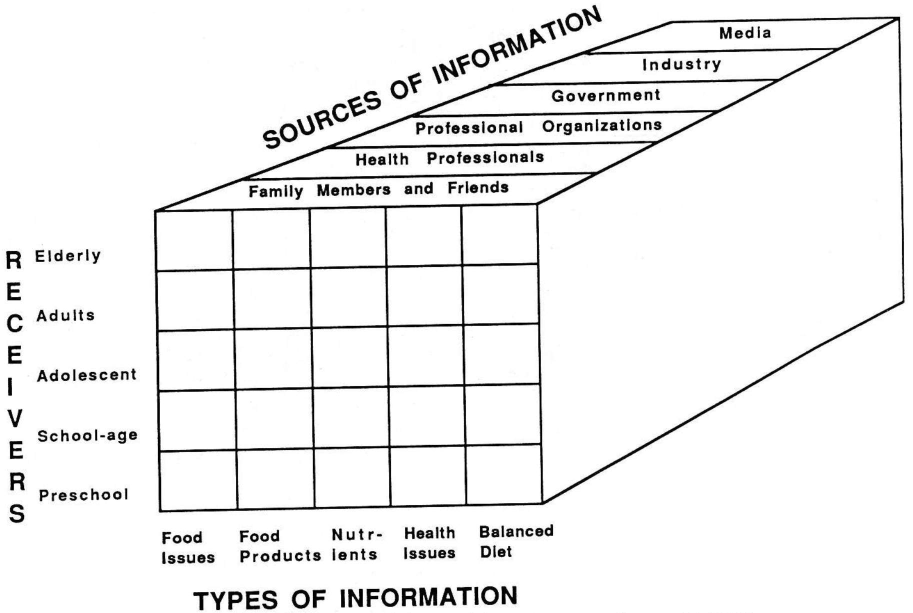

Figure 1. A framework to develop reliable nutrition programs for consumers.

food consumption by individuals. With a national nutrition monitoring and surveillance system, health professionals could monitor nutrition changes over time and use the data to plan nutrition education programs for consumers.

Perspective of Researchers

Research scientists have the responsibility for providing the scientific base of support for diet-health interrelationships. By the nature of their work they are trained to inquire and critically evaluate the scientific work being conducted. Harper (1989) states that scientists need convincing evidence of the effectiveness and safety of a nutrition strategy before taking action. Ensuring that the scientific evidence is sufficiently strong to make nutrition recommendations is an important responsibility of these individuals.

Frequently, researchers are removed from the front line of interaction with the public. In an attempt to build partnerships between researchers and practitioners, a National Nutrition Education Research Conference was held in Montreal, June 1990 (Strychar, 1990). By forming partnerships, academics can develop research studies that are relevant from an academic perspective while at the same time meet the needs of practitioners. The beneficiaries of these partnerships are consumers.

Perspective of the Media

Nutrition is newsworthy: it is relevant, timely, and of human interest. The quality of nutrition information provided to the public is improving as researchers and health practitioners become more accessible to the media, more proactive, and more skilled. The goal of writers is to provide readers with reliable nutrition information that is easily understood. Consequently, writers expect to receive from food and nutrition specialists information that is accurate, and clearly and concisely presented. Establishing sound working relationships between writers and food specialists will result in a well-informed, rather than confused, public. This area poses unique opportunities for home economists.

Perspective of the Government

As funds become more limited, the government is expecting more from the private sector regarding development, implementation, and funding of nutrition education research and consumer programs. The government is also relying on increased cooperation between various professionals and agencies to deal with food and nutrition issues. The Communications and implementation Committee recommend in their report *Actions Toward Healthy Eating* (Health and Welfare Canada, 1990b) that: 1) a national food and nutrition policy be developed, linking nutrition and health with agriculture, education, fitness, fisheries, social services, environment, and other relevant sectors; and 2) communication and coordination on issues of nutrition and food among the departments of National Health and Welfare, Agriculture, Consumer and Corporate Affairs, Fisheries and Oceans, and National Defence be strengthened. These two recommendations along with the other 104 proposed in the report *Actions Towards Healthy Eating* (Health and Welfare Canada, 1990b) will shape the future of nutrition education in the next decade.

Perspective of Industry

Industry has been and must continue to be responsive and responsible with respect to product development and marketing support of nutrition. The food marketing industry has a great deal of influence on consumers' food choices and it also has the financial resources necessary to launch massive campaigns to change dietary behaviors. Although the principal goal of industry is to sell a product and the goal of food and nutrition specialists is to educate, partnerships between industry and food specialists can be formed which are mutually beneficial. The National Institute of Nutrition is an example of an organization that is funded by industry to serve as a credible, objective, Canadian voice on nutrition. Another example of a mutually beneficial association is the Nutrition Month Campaign of the Canadian Dietetic Association, primarily funded by industry.

Sources and Types of Nutrition Information

To assist consumers in determining the reliability of nutrition sources of information, it is important to examine where consumers obtain nutrition information, the types of information obtained, and the receivers of the information. Principal sources of nutrition information are: health professionals, including home economists, nutritionists, dietitians, physicians, nurses, social workers, and dental hygenists; family members and friends, some being health professionals; the media, including print materials such as books, magazines, and newspapers, the radio, television, video-tape productions, and slide-tape presentations (National Institute of Nutrition, 1990; Strychar et al., 1990; Schwartz & Barr, 1977); professional organizations such as the Heart, Cancer, and Diabetes Associations; federal and provincial governments; and the food industry. Each of these groups operates under a different set of assumptions and goals which influence the type of information provided to consumers.

Types of information about food and nutrition can be categorized as follows: information related to food issues, such as processing of foods, safety of foods, and food additives; information related to specific food products, such as fatty acid content of margarine; information related to specific nutrients, such as vitamin and mineral supplementation; information related to health issues, such as the prevention of heart disease through dietary modification; and information related to the concept of a healthy balanced diet. Teaching consumers what constitutes a balanced diet is one of the greatest challenges for educators since it incorporates the concept of foods, nutrients, and health.

Potential receivers of nutrition information are preschool children, school-aged children, adolescents, adults, and the elderly. Is the target audience a group of adults trying to maximize their performance during a sports event through dietary means, or is it a group of elderly individuals interested in increasing their fibre intake to prevent constipation? The perceptions of these individuals must be considered in communicating nutrition information.

Combining sources, types, and potential receivers of information, as schematically depicted in Figure 1, provides home economists with a framework to develop reliable nutrition programs for consumers. For example, one cube of the diagram can represent a program for adolescents about anorexia nervosa. The planner can then identify where adolescents are most apt to seek and obtain information, and subsequently use these channels of communication to plan a multi-disciplinary program to reach the target population. At the same time, possible sources of misinformation may be identified, and a program planned to combat this misinformation.

Communicating Reliable Nutrition Information

What can home economists do to communicate a reliable nutrition message? First, consult the literature to obtain current and accurate information about the topic presented. Collaborate with other health professionals since no one individual can be an expert in all disciplines. Second, know the target audience. The goal is to empower consumers with information so that they can make informed food choices. Third, present a balanced picture with a positive message. Ensure the message is attractive and well-packaged. Finally, evaluate whether the message communicated was understood by the intended audience.

In order to be able to communicate a reliable nutrition message, home economists need to know how to discern the reliability of the scientific nutrition literature available. When reading a scientific report: 1) identify the credibility of the author and their affiliation; 2) read the scientific report several times — often it is hard to fully comprehend all aspects of a study on the first reading; 3) determine if the problem of the study is clearly identified and if the objectives are clearly stated; 4) determine whether the methods are appropriate to answer the research questions; 5) determine whether the conclusions are justified and linked with the findings of thestudy and the research questions; and 6) determine whether the authors have acknowledged the limitations of the study.

How can home economists help consumers identify reliable nutrition information? Advise consumers to identify the source of the information. Make them aware that different sources of information operate under different sets of assumptions. If in doubt, tell consumers to get a second opinion about the nutrition information. Encourage consumers to use the services offered by their local home economist, nutritionist, or dietitian. Help consumers understand that the information they receive is based upon the current available scientific evidence which may change as new information becomes available. Encourage consumers to accept new scientific findings and make changes accordingly. Finally, tell consumers that there are no magical answers or solutions. Adhering to the principles of variety and balance in food selection is the best policy.

The challenge of the '90s is to bring together the different perspectives of health professionals, researchers, the media, government, and industry to effectively communicate sound and reliable nutrition messages to the public. The ultimate goal is to improve the nutritional habits and status of the Canadian population. ☐

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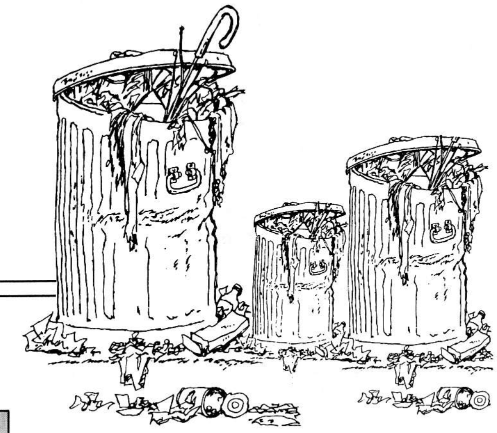
Composting Begins at Home



Laurie King

Abstract

Composting is not a new way to deal with garbage, but it can be an effective way of diverting a large proportion of a household's garbage and reducing stress on community waste facilities. The benefits in terms of decreased demand on sanitary landfill sites, reduced municipal waste collection costs, and the value of the decomposed organic materials in replenishing topsoil, make composting an alternative worth promoting. There are relatively few rules to follow to produce nutrient-rich, dark, humus-like soil in a pile or container. If each home economist actively composted organic wastes and promoted this disposal method in households, schools, businesses, restaurants, hospitals, and communities, a significant contribution could be made to reducing Canada's wasteful ways.

Résumé

Préparer du compost n'est pas une façon nouvelle de disposer des déchets. Cependant, il peut être une manière efficace de disposer d'une grande partie des ordures ménagères et de réduire le stress des municipalités concernant la collecte des déchets. Faire la promotion du compost est une alternative valable de disposer des déchets. Elle favorise la diminution des demandes de sites d'enfouissement sanitaire, la réduction du coût de la collecte municipale des déchets et la décomposition des matières organiques pour le réapprovisionnement en terreau. Il y a vraiment peu de règles à suivre pour produire de l'humus, substance nutritive riche et foncée comme de la terre, dans un tas ou dans un bac. Si chaque économiste familiale active préparait du compost avec ses déchets organiques et si elle faisait la promotion de cette méthode dans les foyers, les écoles, les commerces, les restaurants, les hôpitaux et les municipalités, ce serait une contribution significative de réduire le gaspillage au Canada.

Garbage

Anyone who has experienced an accumulation of garbage — whether through a municipal garbage strike, missing a pick-up or drop-off due to holiday schedules, or through overzealous spring cleaning — must realize that a problem exists. As Gaylin warned in 1974:

> It has come to the point where mass production has made it easier and less expensive to throw the old away and buy a new one than to repair the old. The disposable world is upon us . . . and [we] find ourselves up to our progressive necks in erosive waste and garbage. (p.10)

Canadians who pride themselves on being clean and 'green' actually rate poorly in terms of their use of the earth's resources. Each person in Canada produced 2.2 kilograms of garbage each day, making Canadians the most wasteful people in the world (Ontario Advisory Council on Women's Issues, 1990, p. 28). And the problem is not going away! Dr. William L. Rathje, an archeologist who has analyzed layers of America's modern landfill sites, has found that sanitary landfill is not decomposing. A newspaper dated July 18, 1948 has not only emerged intact, but is actually still readable! (Ontario Recycling Update, 1990, p.3)

There are a tremendous number of ways that Canadians can consciously change their wasteful habits. Everyone can reuse many things around the house, donate items to charitable organizations or schools for craft projects, hold a garage sale, repair articles that might still be useful, buy items in larger sizes or simpler packaging, and use the municipal Blue Box programs, where available, to recycle as much as possible.

Why Compost?

There is a simple way to reduce the largest portion of all household garbage and help the garden grow at the same time. Nearly 50% of all residential solid waste is compostable — leaves, grass clippings, and food scraps (Environment Canada, 1990). By separating out the one-third of all household garbage which comes from the kitchen and combining it with yard waste, individuals can greatly reduce the enormous burden on municipal landfill sites. Imagine the effect in communities if everyone with a backyard began composting all of their kitchen scraps and their yard wastes! Consider the effects if schools, hospitals, restaurants, and businesses followed.

The product of the decomposition of organic material by micro-organisms in the soil is a humus-like material which improves soil texture and increases its ability to absorb nutrients and moisture. Composting at home is cost-effective because it reduces garbage collection and transfers costs,

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reduces energy use and air pollution because fewer garbage trucks are needed, and reduces ground water pollution because there is less ground water leachate at landfull sites. (Metro Toronto Home Composting Education Project, 1991, p.10)

According to John Wise, Federal Minister of Agriculture in 1985, the soil in which food is grown is disappearing at twice the rate that it is being formed and predictions are that within 50 years we will have no topsoil in which to grow food (Metro Toronto Home Composting Education Project, 1991, p.10). Composting builds the soil by providing organic material which can be broken down by natural processes to release plant nutrients. At the same time, this humus in the soil can prevent erosion and drought, neutralize toxins, extend the growing season, and stimulate plant growth.

Since most people throw out about 1/4 of the food they purchase, home composting makes economic as well as environmental sense. It enables families to obtain free fertilizer from wastes that would otherwise be discarded, essentially helping them to waste fewer food dollars. Hopefully this free fertilizer will also benefit the environment by reducing or eliminating dependency on chemical fertilizers and weed inhibitors, again saving the money that would be used for the chemical lawn and garden products (Waterloo Citizens Recycling Committee, 1990).

Getting Started

Locating a compost unit in a space that is partly sunny and partly shady will provide the best conditions for the soil micro-organisms to work effectively at decomposing the wastes. This location should be accessible, have good drainage, and air circulation (Waterloo Citizens Recycling Committee, 1990). Although it is possible to have a compost heap or pit in a corner of a yard or garden, a composting container, whether manufactured or made at home, may be neater looking and reduce the chances of pests being attracted to the compost. The container should be open at the bottom to provide contact with the soil and allow worms and soil organisms to work their way into the compost and help in the decomposing process. Begin with a few inches of soil, then add chopped kitchen and garden waste, adding more soil and turning with a shovel or pitchfork every few days to few weeks depending on the season and quantity of compostable material being added.

Composting is a natural recycling system with its own levels of 'consumers', both microscopic and visible organisms which to thrive require the following: a diversity of food materials, air, water, exposed surface area of compostable matter, and appropriate volume of the pile (Metro Toronto Home Composting Education Project, 1991, p.18).

Balancing the 'diet' of the compost will improve the decomposition of the waste materials and result in a better end-product. The Master Composter Manual (1991) prepared by the Recycling Council of Ontario recommends balancing the mixture of fresh, green, high nitrogen material such as fresh grass clippings and kitchen waste with the dry, brown, high carbon material such as oak leaves, cornstalks, straw, or sawdust. For optimum work and growth, the micro-organisms in the soil require carbon for energy and nitrogen for reproduction in an approximate ratio of 25 to 30 parts of carbon to one part of nitrogen. Since most materials available for composting do not fit the desirable ratio, mixing organic waste, for example 50% brown tree leaves (40:1) with 50% grass clippings (20:1) should give an efficient decomposing blend which averages out to the ideal 30:1 ratio. It is important to avoid all meats, bones, fats, and dairy products in order to prevent odor and pest problems. Waterloo Citizens Recycling Committee (1990) also suggest avoiding plants or grass clippings treated with chemicals, rhubarb leaves, walnut shells, or tree leaves or tree parts, pet faeces, and diseased plants.

Air is essential for the compost pile because aerobic bacteria do not produce the odors associated with anaerobic (without air) decomposition. Using an air stack will enable air to reach the middle of the compost pile or bin and may be made from a "perforated pipe, loosely bundled twigs or wire mesh twisted into a cylinder", according to the Master Composter Manual (1991, p. 24). Other methods of incorporating air into the compost may utilize an aerator tool to punch holes and loosen the materials, turning the pile, or stirring the compost. Perlmutter (1990), president of the Canadian Organic Growers, expresses her personal preference for compost piles rather than plastic bins, because even with frequent turning, she finds an open pile less offensive in odor whether it is turned or not (p.52).

Moisture levels are important to the decomposition process. If the pile is too dry, the bacterial activity slows down. But at high moisture levels, air pockets become filled with water, drowning the aerobic bacteria and leading to the ammonia-like substances and hydrogen sulphide odors as anaerobic bacteria take over.

Chopping or shredding the materials added will increase the surface area exposed to the decomposer bacteria and speed up the process. The householder must decide whether or not to expend extra electrical or mechanical energy to operate chippers, shredders, or blenders in order to increase the production of mulch and garden soil from the compost pile.

Volume is another factor in effective composting. The optimum size appears to range from 3′ × 3′ × 3′ to 5′ × 5′ × 5′. The pile should hold heat to enable the bacteria to work faster, but if the pile is too large, air will not penetrate into the centre of the heap.

Why Is Composting Important?

Teaching classes and families to care for the environment seems a huge task. One can feel overwhelmed with past errors, governments which seem slow to implement change, and the scientific forecasts. Composting is sustainable. It has made a substantial difference in the amount of garbage that has been sent to the 'dump', and schools are beginning to show students how simple composting is, and how effective it can be. If it does nothing else, it has shown that there are ways to make lifestyles more sustainable, that individuals do have the power to improve the environment through action, and that it is important to keep working to clean up. □

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The Blanket Coat: Unique Canadian Dress

Alison Forrest and Jill Oakes

Abstract

The blanket coat is one of few truly Canadian designs. It has been used by many Canadians throughout history. The purpose of this paper is to examine the characteristics and evolution of the blanket coat based on archival, literary, and museum information. Findings reveal three different types of blankets. Focusing on the point blanket, characteristics such as variations in sizes, weights, weaves, and colors are studied. Historic blanket coats used by Indians, Metis, French, English, and the military are examined as well as contemporary designs. Implications for home economists are discussed. In conclusion, the blanket coat continues to meet the changing needs of Canadian living in a northern climate.

Résumé

Le manteau fait de couverture de laine est une création vraiment canadienne. Il fut utilisé par de nombreux canadiens à travers l'histoire. Le but de cet article est d'examiner les caractéristiques et l'évolution du manteau fait de couverture de laine. L'information fut recueillie dans les archives, la littérature et les musées. Les données révèlent trois genres différents de couvertures de laine dont les caractéristiques sont: la variation des dimensions, du poids, du tissage et des couleurs. Les couvertures anciennes portées par les indiens, les métis, les français, les anglais et les militaires ont été examinées aussi bien que celles de modèles contemporains. En conclusion, la couverture de laine continue de satisfaire les besoins changeants des canadiens vivant sous les climats nordiques.

The blanket coat is a Canadian design which has existed in Canada for at least two hundred years. This length of time is considerable since Canada has been a unified country for only 123 years, according to the British North America in 1867. The blanket coat is made from the "point" blanket, a major trade item in the Canadian fur trade. Point blankets have been used as bed coverings, tent-like shelters, saddle blankets, and for many other purposes, yet the point blanket is chiefly known as the basis for the blanket coat. Very little research has been conducted on the blanket coat. This paper discusses the history, characteristics, and current uses of this vital part of our heritage and the Canadians who wore the blanket coat. Several types of blanket coats will also be identified.

The Blanket

The most important trade items were the items the Indians found difficult to obtain such as metals, beads, and blankets. In 1800, there were three types of wool blankets on the market (Hanson, 1988). One type was the "Indian" or striped duffle blanket, a naturally white plain woven blanket with a red or purple stripe at each end (Hanson, 1988). Point marks which refer to size and weight markings as characterized by trade blankets were omitted on "Indian" blankets. The Indian blanket was used by dealers, armies, navies, hospitals, hotels, and Indian traders. By 1807 this type of blanket was "... falling into 'disrepute and disuse' " (Hanson, 1988, p.5).

Another ". . . . type of blanket [used] in 1800 was the rose, or rosed, blanket" (Hanson, 1988, p.6). It was a white blanket similar to the "Indian" blanket but was untwilled and made with a better quality wool. It was named after the "... two roses in the smaller and four roses in the larger corners, wrought in with red, green and yellow yarn ..." (Hanson, 1988, p.6). This embroidered blanket was made from better quality materials than the "Indian" blanket and was used primarily for beds in private homes or for special gifts given to the Indians (Hanson, 1988).

The third type of blanket used in the fur trade in the 1800s was the "point" blanket. The "point" blanket is also

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known as the trade blanket or Hudson's Bay Company blanket. This blanket played an important role in the fur trade.

The Point Blanket

The "point" blanket originally was manufactured in Britain (Hanson, 1973). The Hudson's Bay Company did not make the "point" blankets and were not the first ones to market them. Point blankets or Hudson's Bay Blankets were being mass produced in Britain by the late 1670s. One such blanket manufacturer was the Whitney blanket makers of England. In the 1670s, Whitney was famous for its blanket making and had a large establishment of at least 150 looms and almost 3,000 workers (Hanson, 1973). The Hudson's Bay Company's earliest recorded transaction involving Hudson's Bay "point" blankets is located in the minutes of the Committee of the Hudson's Bay Company meeting held in London on 22nd December, 1779 (MacKay, 1935). The Hudson's Bay Company placed blanket orders with Whitney (Hanson, 1973). "In the 1780's the Hudson's Bay Company began to order Whitney trade blankets with short bars, called 'points', woven into one edge to denote the size and the price in beaver skins of each particular type of blanket" (Hanson, 1973, p.4). Although this is the earliest evidence of the Hudson's Bay Company's role in the blanket trade, there is still evidence that some of the fur traders used the point blanket much earlier (Hanson, 1973).

Economic conditions and the industrial revolution played an important role in the manufacture of the point blanket. By the beginning of the nineteenth century, blanket manufacturers such as Whitney were using Kay's Flying Shuttle, carding engines, spinning mules, and finally steam powered looms (Hanson, 1973). As a result, blanket manufacture became faster and more efficient.

Although the blanket's manufacture has changed over the centuries, blankets are still being produced. Whitney still manufacturers woollen point blankets today, but has changed its materials and production techniques. These changes include using man-made fibres and new weaves (Hanson, 1973).

Characteristics of the Point Blanket

What is a point blanket? "The short dark lines or 'points' (about 4½ inches long), woven near one corner of the point blanket, were originally intended to signify the price in 'made beaver' a price unit representing one good full size beaver skin. Since all the blankets made under one contract were generally the same quality, the marks denoted size and weight" (Hanson, 1976, p.5). The more beaver skins traded, the larger the blanket given in exchange. The point was not originally part of the manufacturing process.

> The "point" on the blanket in its present standardized form is comparatively modern, being introduced in 1850. Prior to that date blankets for the Hudson's Bay Company were made with the bar only by individuals in their own homes, each maker putting a distinctive mark, a "point", on his product to show the size and weight. These "points" were in coloured wools and usually about one inch long (MacKay, 1935, p.47).

Point marks are still used today on point blankets to signify the size and weight of the blanket (Hanson, 1976, p.5).

To prevent other companies from making copies, the Hudson's Bay Company began labelling their "point" blankets. The McKinley Act, passed in Canada in 1890, states that the country of origin must be marked on all imports (Hanson, 1988). Therefore, labelled "point" blankets without the "Made in England" legend were made before 1890 (Hanson, 1988, p.10). This is a relatively late date to start labelling the blankets when one considers the Hudson's Bay had been supplying point blankets to Canada and the United States since 1780. There were many "fake" Hudson's Bay "point" blankets sold.

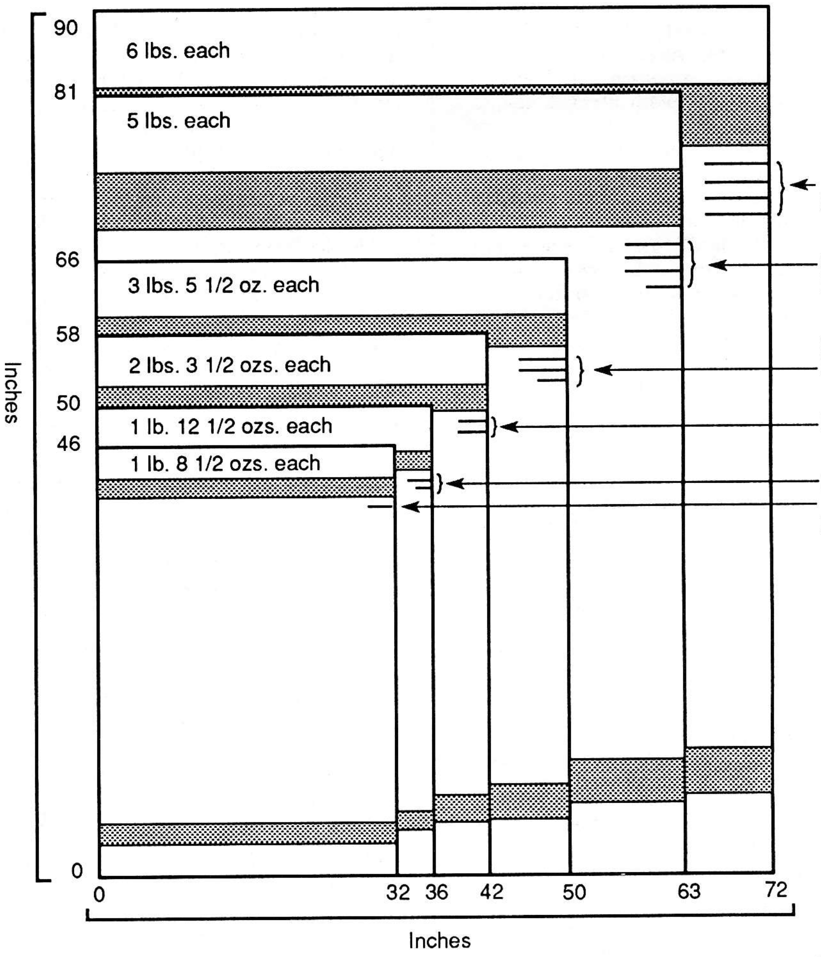

Figure 1. Weights and sizes of point blankets. Each blanket's point refers to size, weight, and stripe width of the blanket (MacKay, 1935, p.52). (Illustration reproduction: L. Turner 1991)

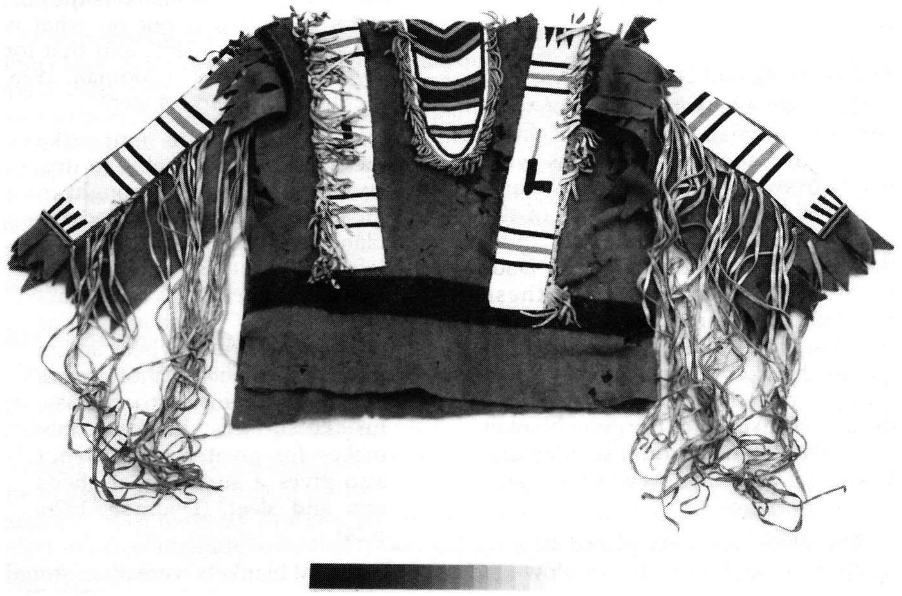

Figure 2. Pasquaw's Shirt. This Cree chief's beaded shirt is constructed from a Hudson's Bay Company blanket (#967.1.216 O.C. Edwards Collection, University of Alberta). (photo credit: J. Corrigan, Museums and Collections Services)

As Dodman (1926) remarks, the Hudson's Bay Company blanket provided not only warmth, it also had to be durable, retain its color, and be instrumental to the owner's survival. For these reasons size, weave, care, color, and end use of the blanket are examined in the following sections.

Sizes and Weights

"The basic, typical blanket of the fur trade was the 3 point white with single dark stripe at each end" (Hanson, 1976, p.7). Point marks originated at the time of the fur trade and their purpose was to identify the size of the blanket (MacKay, 1935). According to MacKay, the points have nothing to do with reference to the weight of the blanket, because the weight of all Hudson's Bay Company blankets is equivalent per square yard (MacKay, 1935). This disputes Hanson's earlier definition of the point "signifying size and weight" (Hanson, 1976, p.5). Obviously these two researchers have different definitions of "weight". MacKay's article includes a drawing that illustrates the relationship between the points and the sizes of point blankets in 1935 (See Figure 1).

Another distinguishing mark besides the point is specific to the point blanket. It is described by Dodman (1926):

> As a distinguishing mark which would be easily recognized by the natives and others, a wide indigo blue band was woven across each end of the blankets. This band varies from two to five and a half inches in width, according to the size of the blanket. (p.22)

Earlier when illustrating the significance of the "point" and "stripe", an example of sizes of point blankets in 1935 was used. These are the specifications for blanket size, weight, and band width as issued by the U.S. Office of Indian trade in 1808:

> 3 point: 6 × 5′-2″, wt. 4 lbs, stripe 2½″ wide
> 2½ point: 5′-4″ × 4′-3′, wt. 3 1-16 lbs, stripe 2½″ wide
> 2 point: 4′-6″ × 4′, wt. 2¾ lbs, stripe 1½″ wide
> 1½ point: 4′ × 3′, wt. 1 1/16 lbs, stripe 1½″wide
> 1 point: 3′-8″ × 2′-10″, wt. 1½ lbs, stripe 1″ wide
> (Hanson, 1976, p.6)

These specifications are not the ones used today. The point blanket's use has changed in the twentieth century, causing the size of the blanket to increase at least in length (Hanson, 1988). "Many of smaller sizes disappeared long before World War II. In 1960 the Hudson's Bay Company was still marketing 'miniature 1½ point blankets' in several colors, but these have since been discontinued" (Hanson, 1976, p.8). Some examples of changes in the size of the point blanket are illustrated in Hanson's (1988) recent article:

> The 3½-point has gone from 81 inches in length to 90 inches. The Hudson's Bay 1½-point brought out in the 1950s was 42 × 60 inches compared to the old 1800 standard of 36 × 51 inches. The more recent 2-point "sport robe" measures 54 × 72 inches — sub-

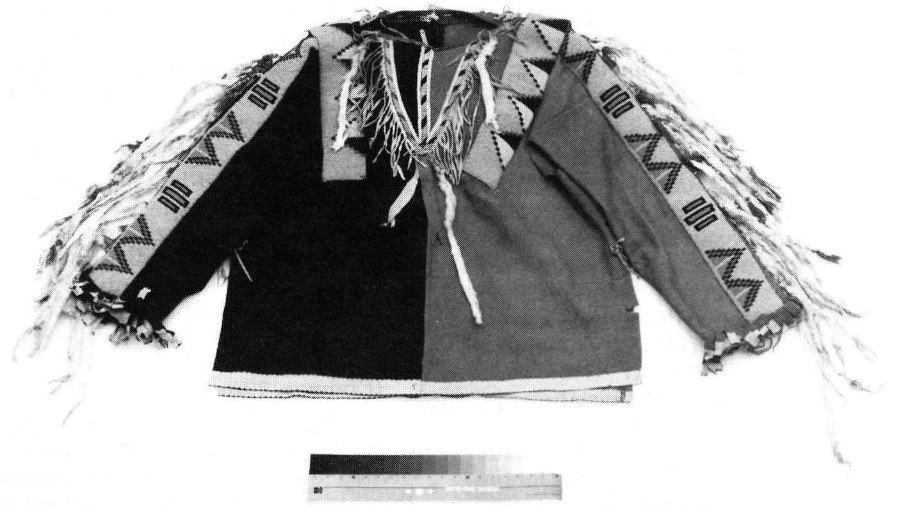

Figure 3. Blanket Cloth or "Stroud" Shirt. Imitation point blankets were made into shirts worn by some members of the Assiniboin Tribe (#976.1.168 O.C. Edwards Collection, University of Alberta). (photo credit: J. Corrigan, Museums and Collections Services)

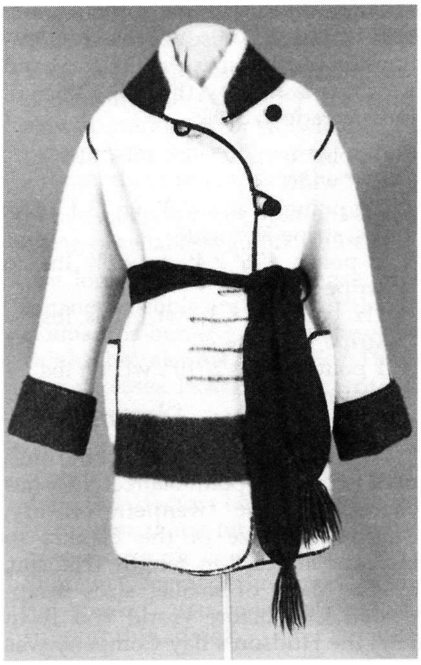

Figure 4. Handmade Hudson's Bay Company Blanket Coat. Not all blanket coats were made by the Hudson's Bay Company. This handmade coat, worn by Mr. Ron Phillips, was purchased in Banff and is complete with sash (85.25.1, Clothing and Textiles Collection, University of Alberta). (photo credit: L. Turner, Department of Clothing and Textiles)

> stantially larger than the American Fur Company 2-point measuring 42-56 inches. (p.9)

Recent Hudson's Bay Point Blankets available in the 1970s are mentioned in *The Point Blanket* by Hanson (1976): "Today the Company sells a large 2 point size (54″ × 72″) in scarlet, multistripe, rose, gold and green. It also offers blankets in 3½ point (60″ × 86″), 4 point (72″ × 90″) and a new "Queen size" 6 point (90″ × 100″)" (p.8).

Blankets used to be sold in pairs. "People today assume they were torn apart before sale, but this was by no means true in all cases. Both Indians and whites who were buying the blankets for bedding preferred to have them left together — it was a great preventative for cold feet" (Hanson, 1988, p.9&10). MacKay (1935) also mentions this fact when stating the durability of the blanket's torn edge — "... the Hudson's Bay Pastel shade blanket has not the Ritz binding for the very sound reason that it will not fray" (MacKay, 1935, p.48). The Hudson's Bay catalogue still listed the 3, 3½ and 4 point blankets in pairs in 1911 (Hanson, 1988).

The Weaving and Dyeing Process

The point blanket is made of wool and was originally handwoven. Most of the fur-trade point blankets were handwoven and made from wools found in many different areas of the world such as England and India (Mackay, 1935; Dodman, 1926). Dodman (1926) mentions that these varieties of wool are needed to produce the Hudson's Bay standard high quality blanket. Long staple woollen fibres were used to produce this durable blanket since the point blanket was often put to rigorous use (MacKay, 1935). The wool then travels through a variety of stages:

> The wools are next placed in a chamber and powerful air blowers are used to ensure a thorough and uniform mixing, then put in long troughs and thoroughly scoured in soap and water to remove all fat, burrs and other foreign matter, after which the material is dried .... (Dodman, 1926, p.23)

The wool is then air and sun dried, brightening the color of the wool (MacKay, 1935). Some wool was dyed before using it for weaving. "The wool of the indigo-blue blanket and of the bands and points of the other Hudson's Bay 'Point' Blankets are dyed with pure indigo-blue only" (Dodman, 1926, p.24). The wool is dyed before spinning so that the dye penetrates every fibre (MacKay, 1935). Dodman also mentions this "wool dye" procedure (Dodman, 1926, p.23). Unlike most other blankets, the point blanket is not bleached with sulphur, "... so at no time, wet or dry is there any unpleasant smell" (MacKay, 1935, 45). Next:

> The wool is then dried and placed on the carding machines, then on to scribbling, combing and spinning, these processes representing the straightening out of all the fibres until they cling together and are spun into an even thread of the correct size and strength, ready for weaving. (Dodman, 1926, p.24)

Shrinkage is another factor that must be taken into consideration. "When the blankets are first woven they are one half greater in size than is required in the finished products" (MacKay, 1935, p.45).

When weaving the blankets the "... yarn for the warp is put on what is called a 'weaver's beam', and that for the weft on shuttles" (Dodman, 1926, p.24). Then the blankets were:

> ... hung on huge fence-like racks in the open fields to dry, and when ready are brought in for finishing. At this period the blanket is hard of surface similar to cloth, but is now passed between huge rollers with brass teeth set in the same manner as bristles in a brush, whose action pulls at the delicate fibres, raises and combs them into that glossy, fur-like surface which not only makes for greater warmth but also gives a surface that sheds rain and sleet. (Dodman, 1926, p.24)

The point blankets were often stored on rolls in pairs (Dodman, 1926). The blankets were not to be cut apart. "Make a cut about an inch deep from the edge at the point of division, then tear across. No blanket stitch or binding is necessary along the torn edge" (MacKay, 1935, p.49).

Colors of Blankets

The colors of the historic trade blankets are difficult to determine. Old ledgers and paintings provide the only available information on historic blankets. "A chronological analysis of the various combinations of stripes on the multi-striped U.S. and British point blanket would be an interesting but difficult project" (Hanson, 1988, p.9). The colors and sizes varied so much over the years and were not well-documented. Color must have been chosen for practical as well as aesthetic reasons.

> Colour was an important consideration, and white was no doubt adopted for use when the snow was on the ground ... The hunter or trapper, in a white blanket coat, is able to approach much closer to his prey than would otherwise be the case. (Dodman, 1926, p.22)

A letter from the Hudson's Bay Company Archives (1928) suggests color was used in blankets to attract Indian traders (p.1). The "... competition for the Indian's trade would seem to have had an effect in producing a vast variety in colors and patterns of fabrics". "For summertime use, [in 1926] the green, red, and multi-stripes were adopted chiefly on account of the natives' love of bright colours ..." (Dodman, 1926, p.22). In the 1930s another reference is made to color:

> Company's blanket lines are in three groups: the Standard colours, the Pastel shades and the blanket garments. The grand old Standard colours — camel, scarlet, blue grey, white, green and striped — are the heirs and successors of the historic blanket . . . The Pastel shades are the modern, worthy offspring of the Standards .... (MacKay, 1935, p.45)

Canadian Variations

One of the most popular and one of the primary focuses of this paper is the blanket coat. The blanket coat was used as warm, protective clothing by Indians, French, and English Canadians (Burnham 1973; Hanson, 1975).

The Indians traded beaver skins with the fur traders for point blankets. Although they used them as blankets, the Indians also wore the point blankets as part of their dress. There are many pictures of these blankets draped around Indian's shoulders as shawls or the blankets were cut up and sewn into shirts elaborately decorated with beads. The Ethnographic Collection of the Department of Anthropology has two examples (967.1.216, 976.1.168). Pasquaw's shirt is made of a red imitation Hudson's Bay Company point blanket (#967.1.216). Pasquaw was a Cree chief who signed a treaty with the government. The hand beaded shirt is dated at approximately 1885 (See Figure 2). Another shirt in the collection is composed of blanket cloth known as "stroud" (#976.1.168). It was worn by a member of the Assiniboin tribe at approximately the same date as Pasquaw's shirt (See Figure 3).

French speaking farmers of Quebec also wore the blanket coat. The habitant's most characteristic outer garment "... was the capote, a hooded overcoat, which protected the wearer in inclement weather" (Beaudoin-Ross [B-R], 1980, p.71). These capotes were usually made of white trade blankets with a colored stripe (B-R, 1980). There were many different styles over the years, but the capote prevailed. The long hooded capote was worn with "... the Assomption or Arrow pattern sash and knit woollen tuque or a hat" (HBC Archives letter, 1928, p.2). This popular nineteenth century finger-woollen sash was also mentioned by Beaudoin-Ross (1980).

The voyageurs also wore the blanket coat. The "... North West Company furnished the engages as part of a regular issue of supplies, a shirt, and trousers and blanket ... The engage supplied his own [capote]" (HBC Archives letter, 1928, p.2). Alexander Henry, the first English trader in the West, "describes the voyageur's costume in 1801 as including a 'molton or blanket coat, a large red milled worsted cap'" (HBC Archives letter, 1928, p.3).

There are two examples of blanket coats worn by non-natives in the Clothing and Textile Collection at the University of Alberta (#85.25.1, #89.49.1). One is a handmade Hudson's Bay blanket coat worn by Mr. Ron Phillips in the mid 1920s (Clothing and Textile Collection [Cltx] #85.25.1) (See Figure 4). It was purchased in Banff and worn in the Lake Louise area. The coat is worn with a sash (see photos 85.25.2, 85.25.3, 85.25.4, 85.25.5, & 85.25.6). The second garment is a manufactured Hudson's Bay Company point blanket coat (Cltx #89.41.1). This coat was probably worn in Northern Ontario and Quebec in the late 1930s and 1940s. Note the Hudson's Bay company label (See Figure 5).

The first company to mass produce coats from "point" blankets for the Hudson's Bay was Western Glove Works Ltd. (HBC Archives, Notes). Prior to this, everyone made their own blanket coats. A pattern for a blanket coat was found in *Cut My Cote* worn by Dr. C.T. Currelly, the first director of the Royal Museum of Archaeology (Burnham, 1973). Later Josef Freed Clothing Co. Ltd. and then in 1965, Peerless Garments Ltd. made blanket coats (HBC Archives, Notes). According to Mr. Bert Garner, who has spent 45 years with the Hudson's Bay company, blanket coats have been made in Winnipeg since 1925 (HBC archives, Notes).

> The military also used point blankets to make blanket coats:
> ... military forces stationed in North America by the British, and later raised by the U.S. Army, also utilized point blankets as issue items for enlisted soldiers. As early as 1778 reports from various Regiments of Foot and The Royal Artillery refer to Canadian "blanket coats". (Gaede & Workman, 1979, p.1)

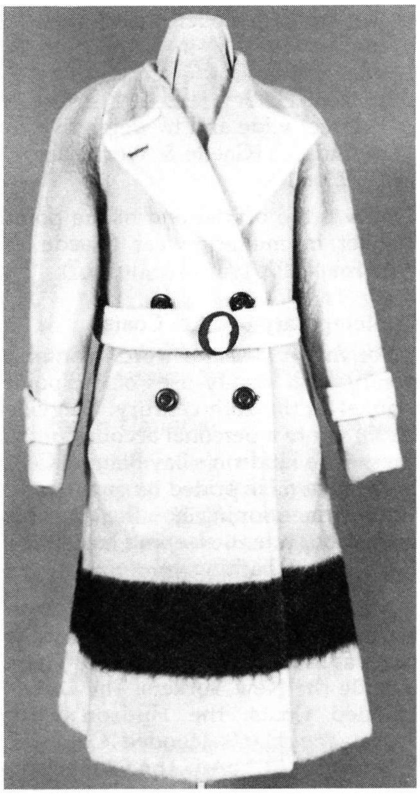

Figure 5. Manufactured Hudson's Bay Company Point Blanket Coat. The Hudson's Bay Company label was sewn on collars to indicate the coats were authentic (#89.49.1, Clothing and Textiles Collection, University of Alberta). (photo credit: L. Turner, Department of Clothing and Textiles)

Friedrich von Germann drawing's in Beaudoin-Ross' article (1980) illustrates the military's use of the trade blanket as a hooded overcoat. MacKay (1935) states:

> . . . original mackinaw coats were made from Hudson's Bay "Point" blankets for the British soldiers who, during the war of 1812, fought in the neighbourhood of Mackinaw. Captain Charles Roberts was unable to obtain greatcoats for his men, so he commandeered a supply of "Point" blankets and coats were designed and made by one of his men. (p.47)

In 1951 there were new regulations for uniform and dress in the United States Army (Gaede & Workman, 1979). These regulations stated that:

> Blanket — woollen, grey, with the letters U.S. in black, four inches long, in the centre; to be seven feet long, and five and a half feet wide and to weigh five pounds . . . (Gaede & Workman, 1979, p.5)

This was the official end of the point blanket in military wear (Gaede & Workman, 1979).

Contemporary Blanket Coats

For this paper, the word "contemporary" will signify uses of the point blanket in the 20th century. D'egville (1933) wrote a personal account of his uses of the Hudson's Bay Blanket Coat in the *Beaver*. He prided its quality and warmth mentioning how he used his blanket for a tent, sleeping bag, and a towel for sunbathing.

MacKay (1935) mentions many types of men's and women's blanket coats available for sale in 1935. These include the New Yorkers, The Lady's Hooded Coats, the Hudson's Bay Parka, The Man's Hooded Coat, the Windbreaker, and the American Jumper (pp.51&52). MacKay also references further articles in *Saturday Evening Post, Vogue,* and *Harper's Bazaar* in 1934.

A recent mention of a Hudson's Bay Blanket Coat was in the magazine *Rotunda* (1985). It mentions a Hudson Bay Company coat designed by Alfred Sung. "It is one of a special collection of blanket coats that the Bay commissioned from Canadian designers" (Rotunda, 1985, p.59) (See Figure 6).

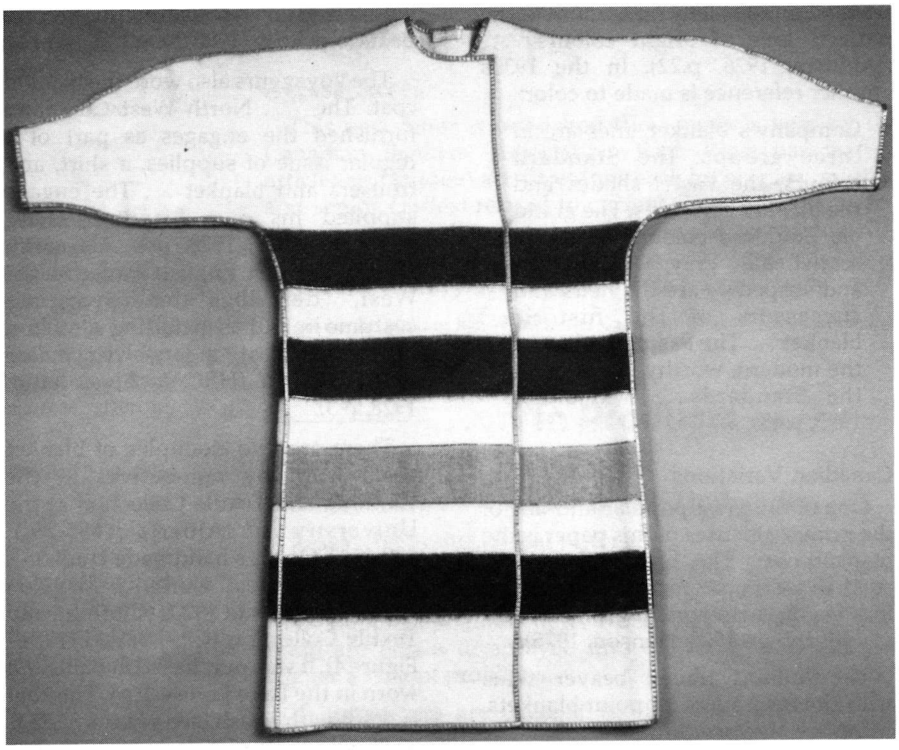

Figure 6. Contemporary Design. This coat, designed by Alfred Sung, was constructed from a Hudson's Bay blanket (credit: 982.49.1 Gift of the Bay; photo courtesy of the Textile Department, Royal Ontario Museum, Toronto, Canada).

Implications for Home Economics

History of Canadian dress research is important to home economists for numerous reasons. This type of research is useful when dating artifacts. For example, in an article written about a Cheyenne child's grave in the 1860s anthropologists found: ". . . four trade blankets wrapped around the infant's body. All of them were in new or nearly new condition at the time of burial and today they are still pristine" in the Smithsonian Museum (Engages, 1980, p.5). The blankets were studied in order to identify when and how they were made.

> Apparently, the first and last blankets described above are machine woven because of their relative uniformity. The second and third specimens are remarkably uneven in size and spacing, suggesting handweaving by an apprentice. Since all the stripes and points are black, it seems that logwood was more popular than indigo for such purposes at the time they were made. (Engages, 1980, p.8)

Information on the Hudson's Bay Company blanket coat is of value to researchers in Canadian History, Native Studies, Women's Studies, Fine Arts, educators, and other scientists in related fields. This research can be applied by a variety of creative, professional people such as designers. For example, in the *Edmonton Journal* a leading fashion commentator, Vivienne Sosnowski, mentions blankets coats at the top of her list for "best of the season" (November 6, 1990, C1). Eddie Bauer's catalogue and November's issue of *Flare* also show examples of fashion inspired by blanket coats.

Recommendations and Conclusions

Additional research is needed on the topic of blanket coats in Canada. They were worn by all Canadians (Indian, French, and English); however, there are many voids in the information on the Hudson Bay Company blanket coat especially in the areas of color and construction. What colors were the blanket coats and when did the colors change? Although this would be difficult research to do, once accomplished the information would be extremely useful in areas such as historical research. The area of contemporary design could also be extensively reviewed. There are many contemporary examples of designs inspired by the Hudson's Bay Company coat. Additional research is also needed to determine the number of beaver pelts traded for the blankets.

There are many questions left to be answered about the blanket coat and the answers to these questions are imbedded in Canada's past. Although the blankets themselves might not have been made in Canada, the way they were assimilated into our history and culture as the infamous blanket coat was 100% Canadian. ☐

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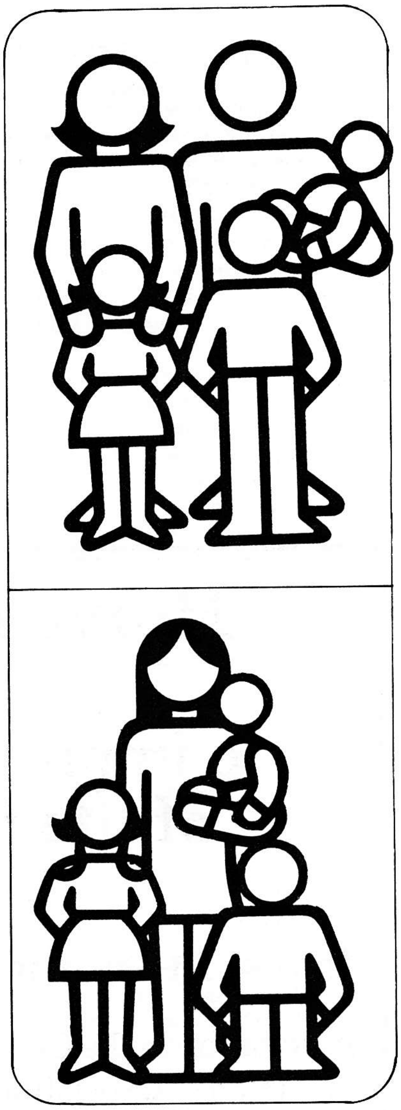
Understanding Canadian Family Policy: Intents and Models

Dianne K. Kieren



Abstract

All family policies throughout the world attempt to grasp the realities of families and offer them support. In order to develop and to understand policies in different countries, we need to understand clearly the cultural, historical, and political situation as well as not lose sight of the human dimension. In Canadian families, as in families throughout the world, there are human beings who are unique in their character, heredity, personal resources, ability to love and be loved, needs, and frustrations. Policy should not lose sight of this human dimension. This paper is an introduction to a series of papers on family policy in Canada. It will introduce some of the key concepts and issues which face policymakers as they attempt to provide relevant and sensitive actions in support of families and individuals in families. The Quebec model, considered by many family policy makers to be an excellent model for the development of humanly-sensitive family policy will be reviewed.

Résumé

Toutes les politiques familiales à travers le monde tentent de saisir les besoins des familles et d'offrir leur soutien. Afin de comprendre la politique familiale de différents pays, il est nécessaire de connaître leur situation culturelle, historique et politique sans perdre de vue la dimension humaine des individus. Dans les familles canadiennes comme dans les familles à travers le monde, les êtres humains sont uniques dans leur caractère, leur hérédité, leurs ressources personnelles, leur capacité d'aimer et d'être aimés, leurs besoins et leurs frustrations. La politique familiale ne devrait pas perdre de vue ces dimensions. Cet article est le début d'une série d'articles sur la politique familiale au Canada. Il propose quelques concepts clés dont les politiciens devront tenir comptre pour venir en aide aux familles et aux individus vivant dans les familles. Le modèle québécois, bien que considéré par plusieurs politiciens comme un excellent modèle pour le développement d'une politique familiale humaniste, sera revisée.

Debates about family policy have occurred in all industrialized countries, including some in the Eastern European Socialist bloc. These debates have grown out of a concern for the well-being of families and differing opinions about the means of accomplishing such an objective, particularly when it involves governmental intervention in family life. The debates centre around many aspects of the family policy question, such as the definition of family and family policy, the nature, intent, and focus of such a policy, and approaches and procedures.

These debates are clearly evident in Canada today as is illustrated by the content of an October 7, 1990 newspaper editorial entitled "More interference with the family unit". This article was a response to a recent announcement by Prime Minister Brian Mulroney that a bureau would be created within Health and Welfare Canada to "co-ordinate federal policies" and ensure "the need to respect children's special needs to be recognized at all times". The writer, Ted Byfield, stated "Mothers are not perfect, nor are fathers. But governments are not perfect either, nor social workers, nor family counsellors. And if the child must depend on one or the other, the parent is by far the most dependable. So why keep eroding the parent's

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Note: This is a revision of a paper presented at a symposium at the 1990 National Council on Family Relations Annual Meeting Seattle, Washington, November, 1990.

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rights by giving them to the state?" It is clear from this example and many others in our own experience, that the discussions of family policy can often be characterized as a battle of conflicting ideologies (Ryant, 1989).

Few would claim that Canada has a family policy, even though there is a wide range of programs, administrative regulations, and laws which both directly and indirectly affect families of all types in important ways. These various initiatives have been developed in a piecemeal fashion at different times and for different reasons. Some authors such as Ryant (1989) suggest that if "one sums all the separate decisions made with reference to family life, there are important threads of consistency that indirectly bind the policy together" (p.231). He argues that the explanations for the consistency are based on an economically deterministic position. While residual policies are made to correct the damage to family and individual well-being as a result of the "excessive demands of the industrial revolution" (p.232), institutional policies are made to take the place of the functions of family members who are absent from the unit and to protect the family from the unpredictability of the economy. Because social policy has a mediating role between families and the economy, he argues that a more comprehensive perspective on family policy is emerging in Canada.

Regardless of Ryant's positive view of the emergence of a comprehensive perspective on Canadian family policy, the full evolution of such a Canadian family policy appears to be in the distant future. Much needs to be done to orient policy to have an impact upon the well-being of different types of family units. The intent of this series of papers is to provide a backdrop about the nature and needs of Canadian families, the socio-political climate which has affected the development of policy to date, the challenges for policy development for the future, and to provide a discussion of current policy initiatives in these specific areas: housing, income support, divorce, and child care. Separate articles on each area will appear in subsequent issues of this journal.

Definitions and Clarifications of the Term Family Policy

Considerable confusion exists with respect to the meaning of the term family policy. As a more specific aspect of public and social policy, family policy has suffered from a wide range of definitions. It is therefore useful to review these definitions. Rice (1979) has defined public policy as "the use of knowledge in the rational development of public activity" (p.4). Social policy according to Ryant (1989) "comprises the laws, administrative arrangements, and entitlements made in response to societal perceptions of problems, needs and aspirations" (p. 231).

The term family policy can be used in a narrow or broad sense. Steiner (1980) has suggested that family policy can be "all inclusive" if one incorporates in the definition all policies which touch the lives of families, or it can be "highly specific" if one looks only at those policies which governments specifically design with families rather than individuals as their intended targets. Moen and Schorr (1987) provide such a narrow definition: "we reserve the term family policy to mean a widely agreed-on set of objectives for families, toward the realization of which the state (and other major social institutions) deliberately shapes programs and policies" (p.795). Most of the family policy which we will review in this series are best described as "tacit family policy", a term coined by Rein (1977) to describe policy which has been uncovered by analyzing a broad range of government policies and inferring the priorities and norms that appear to have been assigned to family members.

There is no doubt that the individual has been the basic target of most government action with respect to social policy. However, many of these policies have either intended or unintended family impacts and are thus interpreted as family policies. For example, many policies which are currently defined as family policies are categorized under other headings such as "health policies" or "employment policies" even though they may have an impact on families. This shouldn't imply that every social policy has a family impact. Moen and Schorr (1987) suggest that family policies are identifiable from general policies whenever one can perceive the family group impact of a policy or the second order effects of a policy which was originally aimed at one individual.

Even when policy makers resolve the definition of family policy, a second definitional issue emerges in the debate about family policy. This centres around the definitions of a family unit. The operationalization of the concept of family has important policy implications, because of its "exclusionary possibilities". If a family is defined narrowly, many family groups will not be covered by the policy. The definitional issue is complex but cannot be avoided. Moen and Schorr (1987) have suggested that rather than aiming for a single definition, it may be more appropriate to define family according to the issue at hand. For example, policies concerning adult relationships should use a family definition including couples, whereas policies concerned with the socialization of children should use a definition including households with children.

The Canadian Family Context: The Challenge

The changing nature of family life sets the stage for the need to develop a wide range of family policies. Canadian families have undergone significant changes in recent years. Many of these changes have, in fact, stimulated policy changes. Ryant (1989) suggests that four demographic changes in Canada, taken individually and considered in relation to one another, should be noted as crucial stimuli to policy revision. These four are: 1) changes in the nature and mix of the labor force, particularly with respect to the participation of women; 2) changes in family formation and dissolution via marriage, divorce, remarriage, and common law unions; 3) changes in the distribution of the Canadian population by age and sex; and 4) the decrease of the birth rate below that required for population replacement (pp.232-233).

This section will briefly review the nature and mix of families in Canada today. According to 1981 census data, out of a population of 24.1 million people there were 6.4 million families with an average size of 3.4 persons. The census definition of a family in Canada refers to a husband and wife (with children who have never married, regardless of age, or no children at all), or a lone parent of any marital status, with one or more children who have never married, regardless of age, living in the same dwelling (Census Canada, Summary Tabulations, 1987, p.ix). A census family also includes those who live together in common law relationships. Census data in 1986 indicated that 8% of all Canadian couples (one in twelve) were living together as common law partners (Statistics Canada, The Daily, July 9, 1987).

Marriage rates in Canada have fluctuated over time. While marriage continues to be a popular life choice, current marriage rates (number of marriages per 100,000 total population) have shown a slight decline. The pattern for age at first marriage indicates a tendency for Canadians to delay marriage. In 1985 the average age of first marriage for grooms was 26.7 years and brides 24.6 years (Vital Statistics, 1941-85). Divorce rates changed significantly in 1968 when the Federal Divorce Act expanded the grounds for divorce. In 1967, the refined divorce rate, calculated on the basis of the number of divorces per 100,000 married women over the age of 15, was 2.5 per 1000. By 1985, this rate had increased to 10 per 1000. The high point was 12 per 1000 in 1982, a figure which has decreased since that time (Nett, 1988). Our crude divorce rate, which is calculated on the basis of the number of divorces granted per 100,000 population regardless of age or marital status, is 2.5 per 1000 population. This rate is lower than that in the United States.

Over 80% of the Canadian population live in some type of family. In 1981, 88.7% of these families were husband-wife families and 11.3% lone-parent families (Statistics Canada, Canada's Lone Parent Families, 1981). By 1986, these figures had dropped to 87.3% for husband-wife families and increased to 12.7% for lone-parent families (Statistics Canada, The Daily, July 8, 1987). In 1981, 1.6 million adults lived alone, twice the number of those who had done so twenty years earlier. Of those single persons 15 years and older, 14.2% were never married, 36.9% divorced, and 48.0% widowed (Statistics Canada, Living Alone, 1984).

The employment rate of married women with children has increased significantly in recent years. In 1981, 76 percent of married women with preschool children were employed compared with 25% in 1976. Boulet and Lavalle (1984) noted that the earnings of married women make up nearly 50% of the total income of spouses in Canada and without this income a significant proportion of these families would be classified as having an income below the poverty line (p.5). Women still experience many difficulties in balancing the demands of work and family life as is evidenced by data which indicate that 58% of women who have ever worked outside the home had experienced an interruption in their work career for a year or more (Robinson, 1987 as cited in Ramu, 1989).

Canadian fertility rates of 1.7 children per female are below the replacement level of 2.1. The magnitude of this trend is even more marked in Quebec (1.5 in 1983), a province which has identified linguistic, political, as well as cultural implications. Births outside of marriage have increased for all age levels regardless of the availability of therapeutic abortion. The premarital birth rates for women age 15-19 reported in 1981 was four times that recorded in 1951 (Romanuic, 1984, p.38).

Statistics Canada data provide evidence that in the 1980s the Canadian family lived better than ever (Nett, 1988). The standard of living increased when measured either by family possessions or material well-being. Average family income in 1983 was approximately $27,000. It should be noted, however, that average figures can mask drastic imbalances of economic well-being. Income is not evenly distributed among families, and that has not changed in over 30 years. In the past ten years there has been an increase in the proportion of families in the lowest two deciles whose primary source of income is government transfers (Nett, 1988). There has also been a drop in the proportion of family income which is obtained from wages, salaries, and net income from self-employment, whereas there has been an increase in income from investment, government transfers, and pensions. Thus, social benefit programs have become a more significant source of income for family groups.

Statistics Canada defines a low income family as any household that is required to spend more than 62% of its income on the basic needs. This definition is one which assumes both social adequacy and subsistence. For a family of four in 1983, the low income cut off for rural areas was $14,268 and for urban areas $19,397. In 1983, nearly 2 million Canadian families lived in poverty and over 100,000 families lived on incomes of $5000 or less (Nett, 1988).

Canadian Socio-Political Context and the Development of Family Policy

The historical pattern of the development of Canadian policies is similar to that within other industrialized countries. There was an early period of reliance on families to provide for the needs of those who were experiencing difficulty. If families were unable to respond, then kin, churches, or various community groups and charitable organizations were asked to help. Only when the resources of these groups were inadequate or depleted was there enough pressure on governments to respond by allocating funds and implementing programs.

Many of what have been informally labeled child and family policies in Canada were actions which were emergent responses to complex pressing social problems rather than carefully designed pro-active or preventative programs. Some of these responses originated at different levels of government and were not coordinated in any way. Unfortunately, when policies are designed or implemented in this fashion, they are likely to end up being uncoordinated. This very lack of coordination may generate unintended impacts.

Lero and Kyle (1991) have suggested that there are several reasons that explain why Canada has no national family policy. These reasons centre around: 1) the lack of a shared goal or set of goals to guide policy development, 2) the historical division of federal and provincial responsibility under the British North American Act and more recently under provisions of the Constitution, 3) the strongly held traditional view that families should assume full responsibility for child rearing and that government should not intervene unless serious problems surface, and 4) the absence of reliable data about families and children to assist in policy planning and evaluation.

The development of a shared goal or goals for policy development is complicated by the diversity of family types and values among Canadians. The predominant Canadian view of a vertical mosaic rather than a melting pot of cultures and traditions and a celebration of regional and provincial differences mitigate against a rapid development of consensus with respect to national family policy goals. In Canada, the federal government tends to be the main force in economic areas whereas the provincial governments are predominant in social, welfare, and educational matters. Even so, there are many deviations from this pattern, for example, the development of federal income security programs. The provinces have delegated decision making authority in the administration of many welfare programs to their regional and municipal governments. Voluntary agencies involved in welfare services also operate within the context of this type of government structure because they work on a partnership basis with the federal, provincial, and local governments.

All of these factors make a very complex situation of political decision making and accountability, and establish the possibility of conflict between those who would work toward formulating a unified strategy for economic and social policies which could produce a variety of impacts on families. Attitudes about the balance between privacy and intrusion in family matters will be ones which are very slow to change.

Family Policy Models and Future Directions

The evidence is clear that Canadian families cannot operate as self-sufficient units in today's dynamic social and political environment. There is need for the type of social support which family policy guidelines and programs can provide. Governments in Canada have extolled the importance of the family unit while basically ignoring and absolving themselves of actions which are specifically designed to protect and enhance family stability and well-being. While there is some evidence of an increased family perspective within various governmental actions, there are many things to accomplish to develop a partnership with families to create an environment which assists families in reaching their own goals.

Family policies should relate to clear notions of family well-being. The Canadian Council on Social Development (1984) has provided a useful schematic view of what is meant by well-being. They view the overall well-being of families as being dependent on a number of elements. Three of these are primary psycho-social, economic, and political participation. Central in their model is economic well-being, comprised over an adequate income level, security of income, the possibility of economic advancement or expectations, and stable source of income. While economic well-being is very important, this alone does not necessarily guarantee family or individual satisfaction. Psycho-social well-being, which is illustrated by a family members' feelings of self-esteem, a sense of belonging and pride is also crucial. In addition, participation in decision making about the areas and issues which have a direct impact on family life provides a significant contribution to overall well-being. Such a broad model indicates the importance of a wholistic view of the lives and functions of individuals who live in families and participate in Canadian society.

Our notions of what families are like, what their concerns are, and what constitutes family well-being all influence the design and approach we use to provide support through the development of policies. Several approaches and models have been used by Canadian policymakers to address these issues. In the "tacit family policy" which constitutes much of family policy in Canada, there is evidence that several models have been used. In some cases, the scope of family policy has been limited to particular family types or target groups (e.g. families with children, single parent families). In others, various types of policy have been designed to respond to specific family functions (nurturance, health, residence, economic, cultural, and personal-social services).

Most policymakers remain skeptical about the development of a single unified family policy for Canada. What has been sought is greater attention to a family perspective and family issues as they relate to policy making. Lynn (1980), writing in support of this view, suggested that the family is like a city. Both cities and families generate public concerns. He argues that there is no need for a comprehensive national urban policy to address urban concerns any more than there is a need for a comprehensive national family policy. Narrower and more limited approaches may make more sense in a country like Canada which offers such diversity of needs and social and political structures.

The province of Quebec has developed such a provincial plan. Based

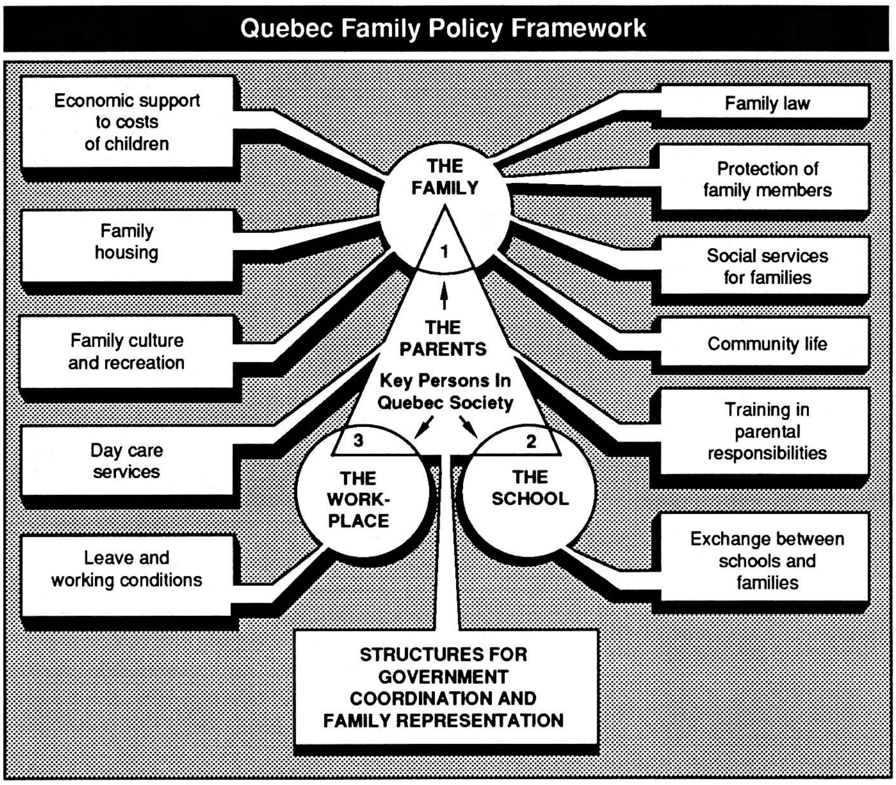
Quebec Family Policy Framework
Economic support to costs of children
Family housing
Family culture and recreation
Day care services
Leave and working conditions
THE FAMILY
1
THE PARENTS
Key Persons In Quebec Society
3
2
THE WORK-PLACE
THE SCHOOL
Family law
Protection of family members
Social services for families
Community life
Training in parental responsibilities
Exchange between schools and families
STRUCTURES FOR GOVERNMENT COORDINATION AND FAMILY REPRESENTATION

Figure 1. Quebec family policy framework — a plan for action. [(Source: Edgar, D. (1988). *Family Matters,* 20, p.5.]

upon extensive study of the problems affecting Quebec families, the working paper of 1984 was designed "to suggest guidelines for reflection, discussion and recommendations by the public to the government for priority action" (p.7). It was structured to establish a plan of action rather than the generation of "pious hopes" (see Figure 1).

The plan was based on these principles:

- The family is a unit of community life and not just a collection of individuals. A family policy focuses on the unit and the relationships within it.
- The state assures the populace that it will take account of the family unit in all if its policies; regardless of the sphere (e.g. school, workplace).
- The government is committed to a state which both supports and acts as a partner in family development.
- The government is committed to maintaining and improving the quality of the family environment so that problem intervention is minimized.
- This is a cooperative policy to be established in partnership with families and communities.

The policy planning document (1984) and the related report (1986) argued that the target for family policy shall be primarily (but not only) parents and the child rearing task. It was designed to enhance the well-being of families not just to solve particular demographic problems in Quebec (e.g. low birth rate).

The major objectives were *to dignify* the role of parent and the reciprocity of support among family members and families; *to support* families so that they can carry out their responsibilities; and *to coordinate* the actions which have a potential impact on families. The triangle of work, school, and family with parents at the centre of the model represents the key areas of social and economic development. The elements listed at the side of the triangle indicate areas which will be specifically addressed to support these three key areas. The report produced in 1986 lists a full range of forms of collective support for families which must be provided to contribute to the well-being of Quebec families. The effectiveness of this approach remains to be demonstrated in subsequent evaluations of its implementation. The appeal of this approach is its recognition of policy development and implementation as a cooperative enterprise.

The subsequent articles in this series will specifically illustrate the successes and the failures which Canadians have experienced in developing and implementing family policy in the areas of income support, housing, divorce, and child care. We recognize that policy-makers have many things to accomplish and that the challenges for Canada in the family policy area are great (Armitage, 1978; Canadian Committee to the VVI International Conference on Social Welfare, 1972; Eichler, 1983). In some areas we are beginners, in others we have had as much experience (both positive and negative) as other western countries (Ooms & Priester, 1988). On the beginner's side, for example, we find ourselves attempting to gather information and assess current policies without the benefit of well-established free standing policy institutes so familiar in the United States (e.g. Russell Sage, Ford Foundation). Only recently has the Child, Youth and Family Policy Research Centre been established in Toronto. This unit will begin to fill in this information gap (Johnson & Barnhorst, 1991).

We have some immediate issues which need to be addressed including the identification of target areas for the development of family policy in the 1990s and beyond. In the United States the 1980 White House Conference targeted four primary areas: families and economic well-being (e.g. economic pressures, tax policies, income security), families and human needs (e.g. education, child care, handicapping conditions), families and major institutions (e.g. government media, law), and families; challenges and responsibilities (e.g. families and violence, substance abuse, aging, preparation for family and marriage). While many of these issues such as economic well-being and childcare, can be assumed to be as important in Canada as in the United States, there are undoubtedly unique elements of our society which need to be addressed as well. Nett (1988) has argued that family violence, chemical substance abuse, and problems associated with aging are priority Canadian concerns as are certain issues related to reproduction and sexuality (pornography and abortion). To tackle these issues, we need to develop an informed citizenry which is allowed and encouraged to participate in the policy process. Unfortunately, these essential public debates are often avoided, particularly if they contain controversial issues. Writers like Cherlin (1984) suggest that there is an important role in family policy development for family professionals. Until professionals like home economists, who have a primary concern about family well-being, are willing to engage in public education and debate of these crucial issues, we will continue to find that inaction or accidental policy formation will be the rule of the day. ☐

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ERRATA

Nous regrettons les erreurs typographiques que nous retrouvons dans l'article, "Identité professionnelle chez les étudiants et étudiantes en consommation de l'université Laval", paru dans la Revue canadienne d'économie familiale Hiver 1991.

Research Section

Proving Its Worth: Jessie McLenaghen and Home Economics in British Columbia[1]

Mary Leah DeZwart

Abstract

In British Columbia, home economics had been a marginal part of the public school system for over twenty years before a provincial supervisor was appointed in 1926. The story of how Jessie McLenaghan, first holder of the position, proved the worth of home economics in the B.C. school system provides a view of the political and ideological conditions under which legitimization was achieved. McLenaghen's own writings, interviews with colleagues, Department of Education Annual Reports, and contemporary newspaper accounts are used to build a contextual picture of her mission to prove that home economics was a prepared subject. Home economics is viewed as an integral part of the progressive education movement in the study. By examining the work of home economics pioneers such as Jessie McLenaghen, we can become more aware of the restrictions and contradictions which concerned them and which may affect current practices.

Résumé

En Colombie Britannique, l'économie familiale fut un programme marginal dans le système des écoles publiques pendant plus de vingt ans, avant que soit nommée une directrice provinciale en 1926. Jessie McLenaghen, première femme à obtenir ce poste, démontra la valeur de l'"économie familiale dans le système scolaire de la Colombie Britannique. L'histoire de Jessie McLenaghen nous donne un aperçu des conditions politiques et idéologiques, sous lesquelles fut atteint la légitimité de son poste. Les écrits personnels de Jessie McLenaghen, ses entrevues avec les collègues, ses rapports annuels au Département de l'Education et ses notes dans les journaux du temps ont été employés pour donner une image exacte de son rôle, afin de prouver que l'économie familiale était une matière bien structurée. L'économie familiale est vue comme une partie intégrale du mouvement progressif éducatif dans les études. En examinant l'oeuvre des pionnières en économie familiale, telle que celle de Jessie McLenaghen, nous pouvons être plus consciente des restrictions et des contradictions qui les concernaient et pouvaient affecter les pratiques courantes.

Jessie McLenaghen (1883-1968), the first Provincial Director of Home Economics for the Department of Education, British Columbia, has been largely unrecognized for her contribution to home economics and education. The purpose of this paper is to restore her name to the public historical record. Official documents such as Department of Education annual reports, archival records in Ontario and British Columbia, personal interviews with McLenaghen's colleagues and friends, and McLenaghen's own writings have been used to build a composite picture of a woman whose career extended from a one-room school teacher to provincial administrator. Jessie McLenaghen understood the role of home economics as a political subject, answerable to community values. She achieved her goal of legitimizing home economics as a school subject, but it became accepted for its perceived potential to educate girls in "worthy home membership" rather than as a subject of equal value to academic ones. Apparent contradictions between philosophy and achievement are explored with specific reference to the years 1926-1939.

Historical inquiry shares four requirements for quality research with other qualitative approaches: concern for context, concern for undertaking research, concern for the wholeness or integrity of experience, and concern for interpreting and explaining the significance of the experience (Edson, 1988, p. 47). Historical inquiry in home economics offers the opportunity of historical context and can reinforce our sense of belonging to the entire history of education, rather than just to women's history. Home economics education in British Columbia is currently undergoing revision as part of the *Year 2000* Report (1989) which

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emphasizes lifelong learning and the necessity of a well-rounded education. There are striking similarities to the reasons offered for curriculum revision in the 1930s. Critical examination of McLenaghen's life and work may assist us in interpreting present events in home economics.

Biographical Summary

Jessie Louise McLenaghen was born on December 3, 1883, near Balderson Corners, Lanark County, Ontario, third of seven children of John and Elspeth (McIlquham) McLenaghen (Mitchell, 1989). At age nineteen Jessie was teaching in a one-room schoolhouse close to the family farm. The McLenaghen family moved to Portage La Prairie, Manitoba in 1904 and Jessie and her sister Jen attended Winnipeg Normal School for an eighteen-week course. In her diary Jessie recorded taking manual training and making a "little box" at Normal School, but unlike her sister, she did not take domestic science (McLenaghen, 1903-06). It is not clear when McLenaghen developed an interest in home economics, but certainly she had a lifelong mission to "improve people's lot" (Gibbon, 1989). Those who knew her recall her as "very human" (Mitchell, 1989), the kind of person who "always had three kinds of cookies made by herself on hand" (Gibbon, 1989). Jessie was seen as an "idealist, governed by conviction" who thoroughly believed in home economics. To ensure change "all you had to do was call attention to a point and the person would correct it" (Gibbon, 1989).

Jessie McLenaghen spent a few years teaching grade school in southern Manitoba and Saskatchewan. In 1917, she attended the Lillian Massey-Treble School of Domestic Science in Toronto and was head of the class (Laird, 1924). This study was not sufficient for a degree in Household Science, but did introduce McLenaghen to noted home economists such as Annie Laird, associate professor and one of the founding members of the American Dietetic Association. After her return to Saskatchewan, McLenaghen worked as Assistant Supervisor for the Saskatoon Normal School under the principalship of George Weir, considered to be "one of the most popular educators in the Dominion" (Hawkes, 1924, p. 1284).

In 1924, Jessie McLenaghen left Saskatchewan to attend Teachers College, Columbia University in New York. The Faculty of Practical Arts had been established to train teachers of household arts, industrial arts, and allied subjects. It was highly rated, with eight out of twenty-two departments devoted to home economics (Cremin, Shannon, & Townsend, 1954). After receiving her bachelor's degree from the Faculty of Practical Arts and her teacher's diploma in 1925, Jessie McLenaghen was employed as a foods instructor for one year at the New York State Teachers College in Albany ("News from the field", 1926).

In August of 1926, McLenaghen was appointed to the position of Home Economics Director, Department of Education, Province of British Columbia. She held that position for twenty years until retirement in 1946. A major life event for Jessie was receiving an honorary Doctor of Laws degree from the University of British Columbia in 1956. In the citation delivered in McLenaghen's honor, mention was made of her "boundless enthusiasm and happy blend of caution and open-mindedness" as well as her efforts during the Depression when "it looked as if home economics would be swept from the curriculum as a frill" (McKenzie, 1956). After Jessie McLenaghen's death on December 19, 1968, she was credited with making home economics an appropriate subject for junior matriculation, putting home economics courses for elementary, junior, and high school into effect and having been "instrumental in raising the standard of teacher preparation for home economics" (*Annual Report of the Public Schools of British Columbia* [ARPS], 1968-69, p. G80).

Home Economics and the New Education

The particular event that brought Jessie McLenaghen to British Columbia in 1926 was a comprehensive survey of education in B.C., conducted by two prominent Canadian educationists, J.H. Putman and George Weir. The Putman and Weir (1925) report has been described as a "sophisticated blueprint" which brought American-style progressive education to Canada (Sutherland, 1976, p. 223). Home economics was a cornerstone of the New Education philosophy because it would "give the girl a sane attitude toward life while requiring her to solve life problems and deal with real projects" (Putman & Weir, 1925, p. 336). The survey commissioners criticized home economics in British Columbia on the grounds of poor academic training of teachers, waste of time and materials, and almost complete separation from other departments in the school. The appointment of a "thoroughly competent woman" who possessed "tact in dealing with the public, executive ability, training for leadership and above all good judgment and a genius for practising economy" was imperative to put home economics on track. (Putman & Weir, 1925, p. 339). Jessie McLenaghen's job description from the outset was contradictory. She was expected to make required changes, but not create controversy or extra expense. The tasks awaiting her were those of reconciling and unifying the current public school curriculum, publicizing the program, initiating new ideas, and ensuring that home economics became an integral part of the curriculum.

Putman and Weir expressed a remarkable passion about home economics and other forms of practical education best explained as part of the child-centred movement of education (Roome, 1989). Home economics can be viewed within the context of what Cremin (1961) termed a "Copernican shift in educational thinking", the shift from subject-centred to child-centred learning (p. 104). It began in part with a Swiss educational reformer, Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), who was influenced by Rousseau's ideas of developmental learning and concept of natural education. Pestalozzi saw education as having three strands: "head", or intellectual; "hand", or physical and manual; and "heart", or moral (Heafford, 1967, p. 45). Pestalozzi's ideas spread to Ontario and hence to British Columbia, to the extent that the *B.C. Teacher* (Centenary, 1927) had a special feature on the centenary of Pestalozzi's death.

Manual training was the usual expression of child-centred learning. The Macdonald-Robertson movement propelled the installation of manual training and domestic science in the public school system (Sutherland, 1976). In 1900, J.W. Robertson and Sir William Macdonald started a scheme whereby manual training was initiated in one centre in each province and funded for three years (Pavey, 1971). When the funding ceased, the program continued in many centres. Adelaide Hoodless, through her association with J.W. Robertson, worked for the equivalent of manual training for the girls and the result was domestic science (McDonald, 1986). Crowley (1986) claims that Hoodless was able to make common cause with men like Robertson because her views about the sexual division of labor and the need for a new education for women conformed to the idea of separate spheres. Home economics was considered by many people to be a panacea for the ills of industrialization (Crowley, 1986).

An epochal event for manual training and home economics, according to Tomkins (1986), was the Royal Commission on Industrial Training and Technical Education in 1913 chaired by J.W. Robertson. The Commission was important for serving as a blueprint for implementing the New Education, drawing national attention to the aims of curriculum and paying attention to "health, the formation of good habits . . . and cultivation of high ideals" (Tomkins, 1986, p. 110). The role of domestic science was to diversify the curriculum and make the classroom more socially relevant and less restrictive.

Home economics in British Columbia received a boost with the unexpected residency of Alice Ravenhill in 1911. The internationally-known home economist brought new prestige to home economics when she emigrated with her family to Vancouver Island (Daniels & Bayliss, 1985; Tomkins, 1986). A loss to British Columbia was the failure to recognize Ravenhill's achievement of establishing Household Science at King's College, University of London, and to use that expertise to establish a Chair of Home Economics at the University of British Columbia. Stewart's (1990) study of women at UBC documents how the opposition of influential women such as Evlyn Farris caused a crucial delay in the attainment of a Chair of Home Economics. Farris believed that the introduction of practical training for women "imperilled their intellectual development and endangered the value of philosophical learning" (Stewart, 1990, p. 45). In a 1914 public debate with Ravenhill, Farris upheld the benefits of a liberal education. Alice Ravenhill, in turn, argued that if the liberal arts were so effective in education, why were the health standards so low? Ravenhill's practicality eventually won out over Farris' concerns but not until 1943 when a Chair of Home Economics finally became permanent. Ravenhill had relatively little to do with the public school system after about 1915, turning her attention to Women's Institute work and lecturing in the United States (Smith, 1989).

Both Putman and Weir (1925) and Jessie McLenaghen (British Columbia Department of Education, 1934-35) cited the teaching of cultural values as a main reason for including home economics in the school system. As defined by Putman and Weir, cultural values embodied the connection between culture and skill in a craft or being able to solve real-life problems. Home economists in the past had referred to the cultural value of home economics. Marion Talbot (1913) claimed that the function of domestic science was to interpret the values of life with the cautionary note that too much emphasis on mechanical operations would obscure the true relation of home economics to those real values. Talbot thought teachers should train their students in intellectual, social, and spiritual qualities as well as vocational skills. In terms familiar to us today, Talbot criticized domestic science for "too long confining itself to a narrow definition of cooking and sewing" (p. 232).

Home Economics in British Columbia 1926-1939

Jessie McLenaghen's accomplishments as Director of Home Economics can be roughly divided into three parts which correspond to political and economic events in British Columbia. From 1926 to 1929, the program expanded with confidence as McLenaghen set about implementing the changes recommended by Putman and Weir within her mandate. From 1929 to 1933, the tone changed to one of "contraction and perplexity" when the effects of the Great Depression rebounded on education (*Vancouver Board of School Trustees Annual Report*, 1933, p. 26). The third era, 1934 to 1939, constituted the "Golden Age" of practical arts, when many of the progressive ideals of the Putman and Weir survey came to fruition. The Second World War diverted attention from any significant accomplishments other than the founding of the Canadian Home Economics Association in 1939 and McLenaghen's term of office as its first President.

Program Expansion, Contraction and Contradiction

Jessie McLenaghen's self-proclaimed motto for her first year as Director was "Make haste slowly" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1926-27, p. M64). Achievements of that first year included a complete curriculum revision to include junior high school classes and the writing and publishing of a recipe manual on the premise of including "more than mere technical processes" in all areas of home economics. McLenaghen introduced innovations such as machine-sewing for grade six pupils on an experimental basis to convince any doubters before instituting province-wide reforms. The result, she reported, was a decided increase in interest, practical value, and the number of problem-solving situations that could be developed. In her first report as Home Economics Director, McLenaghen emphasized teaching by experiment to "stimulate inquiry and encourage investigation", extensive home practice, and use of the recipe manual to save time previously spent copying recipes. McLenaghen anticipated the day when home economics pupils would be able to get their information from the printed page "as is done by students of other academic subjects" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1926-27, p. M64). McLenaghen set out her intentions clearly in the foreword to the recipe manual: "It is most advisable that we prove that home economics is not an 'unprepared' subject" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1927a, p. i). Legitimization and proof of worth were the key words in Jessie McLenaghen's career in British Columbia. The means by which status was achieved forms part of the contradiction in her accomplishments.

The intent of the 1927 home economics curriculum revision was to assure uniformity across the province. The goal of education in general was for pupils to discover their interests, aptitudes and abilities, have their individual differences recognized, and receive "that common background of ideas and experience necessary for the attainment of social solidarity" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1927b, p. 5). Home economics focused on developing right attitudes to home and family life. It appeared to involve a moral injunction for girls to learn the virtues of worthy home membership through gradually increasing home responsibilities. Activities for worthy home membership included speaking pleasantly to others, avoiding fault finding, obeying one's parents, considering others, and cheerfully and faithfully performing those tasks which would lead to personal advancement (British Columbia Department of Education, 1927, p. 55). Boys taking industrial arts were not similarly required to learn about manners, but were encouraged instead to develop in "socially useful directions their innate tendencies to manipulate materials" (p. 44).

By far the most revolutionary change was in the focus on group rather than individual work. The first unit kitchens, replacing the hollow squares where each student had her own equipment, were built in 1927. This change necessitated a special demonstration by Charlotte Black of Kitsilano Junior High School on the use of the unit kitchen ("Home Economics section", 1928). McLenaghen emphasized that home economics pupils were learning to work in family units and make family-size quantities (British Columbia Department of Education, 1927-28, p. V57). In this way, a fundamental change in home economics philosophy began which mirrored progressive education ideals. Wood (1985) has observed that the motives of education after the Putman and Weir (1925) report were social, the school being considered the best and often the only place for children to learn about society. Home economics classes played their part in socializing students.

After having put the public school curriculum into proper shape, McLenaghen began to work on improving teacher qualifications. A major step was the acceptance of home economics as a matriculation credit by the University of British Columbia in 1929. McLenaghen wrote: "This privilege has done more than any other one factor to raise home economics above the position of the Cinderella of the High School curriculum" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1928-29, p. R52). It was a partial victory. Home economics counted for only half of a regular subject. By 1934, McLenaghen had achieved the goal of full matriculation credit for home economics through deft use of statistics to prove to the Dean of Arts that students presenting home economics credits for university entrance had obtained even higher scores in high school mathematics (McLenaghen, 1956, p. 8).

The training of home economics teachers had been singled out by McLenaghen as a problem of "considerable contrast" in her first report (British Columbia Department of Education, 1926-27, p. M65). The Victoria Normal School had a home economics specialist; no such position existed in Vancouver (Calam, 1984). A renewed effort by several volunteer groups to establish a Chair of Home Economics at the University of British Columbia meant that there was considerable interest in home economics education. The Chair was temporarily established in 1929 and cancelled two years later, due in part to the depression and financial crisis in the government (Stewart, 1990).

Any improvement in teacher qualifications was an increase in status to McLenaghen: The hiring of 14 new teachers with bachelor's degrees out of 17 in 1927 "spelled success" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1926-27, p. M65). Concerns about teacher training were expressed by home economics teachers in the field who were well aware of the commonly held idea that "any woman who was a good cook and seamstress could teach home economics" (Murphy, 1989).

Home economics became compulsory in the British Columbia public school curriculum in 1935 (British Columbia Department of Education, 1935-36). McLenaghen was elated with the achievement of what she interpreted as equal status with academic subjects: "No longer does the retention of this department depend upon the attitude of the community" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1935-36, p. H80). In a commemorative article written twenty years later, McLeneghen referred to the change in attitude of educators toward home economics as "coming up out of the basement". Her intended allusion was to the usual basement location of the home economics laboratories "which typified the prestige of the subject" (McLenaghen, 1956, p. 8). In fact, equal status for home economics had a price attached to it. The former half-days allotted to home economics gave way to 40 or 50 minute periods and access to elementary school children was lost. Manual arts for grades 1 to 6 was put in the hands of classroom teachers and practical arts was taught to grades 7 and up by home economics and manual training teachers.

The 1936 Curriculum Revision

The 1936 curriculum revision in British Columbia was necessitated by "more recent contributions of the Science of Education" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1935-36, p. H26) apparently not reflected in the curriculum revisions of 1927, 1932, and 1933. "Character" was the main objective of general education, to be achieved through "significant experiences" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1936, p. 8). The objectives for home economics combined a cardinal principle of education with cultural and vocational values, endeavoring to "give the student a well-rounded conception of the many responsibilities contributing to worthy home membership ... and to gain some knowledge of the profession of home-making" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1936, p. 461). "Homemaking as a profession" was seen as necessary to preserve cultural values (Allen, 1936, p. 54). Jessie McLenaghen described the curriculum as "uniform but elastic" because it included minimum requirements for each grade but could be "fit to the needs of the students and the community" (McLenaghen, 1914, p. 748). Home practice was crucial for success; the home was the "best testing laboratory" to develop skill in management and manipulation and stimulate home interest in school activities (British Columbia Department of Education, 1936, p. 463). No suggestion was made that the school might learn from home activities. Education in homemaking was a one-way street.

Examination of the actual curriculum document belies the flexibility claimed by McLenaghen. The first project in the grade seven clothing course was the construction of an apron which made up part of the "cookery uniform". Exact construction details of headband, apron, and towel were spelled out, down to the distance between pins in the layout. Despite the injunction to link home and school practices closely, the grade seven pupil in her cookery uniform on page 45 of the recipe manual (retitled *Foods, Nutrition and Home Management Manual* in 1935) more resembled an antiseptic worker than a homemaker. In fact, the curriculum suggested that a discussion of the care of the uniform be "linked with the attractive appearance of a nurse" (British Columbia Department of Education, 1936, p. 474). A wider range of subjects was included than in the 1927 curriculum revision, but the overwhelming impression was of a teacher-proof curriculum. Jessie McLenaghen did not quite trust the home economics teachers in the field, although she claimed that they were much better educated than in the past.

Jessie McLenaghen maintained continual contact with her teachers, admonishing and advising them about the required procedures through newsletter and inspections. There were few areas of teaching which did not elicit suggestions. As late as 1945, McLenaghen was still telling her teachers to write previews, cook in full recipes, have students make only *one* trip to the supply table, and do all sewing under the teacher's supervision at school (McLenaghen, 1945). In an article for *The School,* McLenaghen wrote that "the teacher, not the programme, is the cornerstone of the educational arch" (McLenaghen, 1941, p. 749). She echoed a prominent educational psychologist who had originated the phrase a few years earlier, but who said in addition: "With good teachers, practically any programme can be made to work well; with poor ones, the best course of study in the world will prove a failure" (Sandiford, 1938, p. 476).

Implications for Home Economics

Analysis of McLenaghen's somewhat instrumental approach to home economics points up the extent to which her initial philosophy was colored by events in British Columbia. Jessie McLenaghen defined home economics education as "prepared" but practical. She considered improvement in teacher qualifications to be essential to a strong program but took no chances that teachers might not follow her prescriptions. She clearly understood home economics in British Columbia to be a political subject, responsive to community needs. Her efforts to prove the academic worth of home economics obscured the importance of its practical value and personal relevance. Uniformity and conformity to exterior standards replaced individual decision-making. Home economics became a permanent but peripheral part of the curriculum, used to promote progressive education ideals rather than accepted on its own merits.

One can use the analogy of the 'domino effect' to show how Jessie McLenaghen's achievements in British Columbia were woven around contextual events. Because there was no Chair of Home Economics at the University of British Columbia, teachers either had to be imported or leave the province to become qualified. Hence, there were many unqualified teachers. Because more inspection was required in order to meet McLenaghen's standards, time was taken that could have been spent on building up programs. The mandate for home economics in the curriculum revision of 1936 did not extend past the Chant Commission of 1960 when many New Education ideas were discarded (Sutherland, 1986).

Because home economics was under duress as a "frill", McLenaghen had to spend time proving its worth and setting standards, instead of questioning whether the imposition of standards worked against the linking of school and home practice. This fits in with Wood's (1985) suggestion that the unproblematic view of society advocated by progressive reform was its eventual downfall. Home economics as part of progressive education was subject to the particular restrictions which eventually led to its falling out of fashion. McLenaghen came to British Columbia well-prepared to put the ideas of practical arts into practice, but the constant pressure of having to prove the worth of the program required overemphasis on standards and outward manifestations of value. The result was conformity and uncritical reflection that continued on to the next generation of home economics teachers.

Jessie McLenaghen's story offers us her unfinished business of legitimizing home economics, not as an equal academic subject, but as a practical subject of equal value. McLenaghen saw academic respectability as the means to status. Can we, in the 1990s reinterpret the meaning of respectability? Peterat (1989) points out that home economics has been and is "a basic challenge to traditional pedagogical practices and forms of knowledge in schools and higher education" (p. 73). She calls for analysis of the conditions which provoked the relationship between home economics and traditional school subjects. By such analysis, we can become more reflective of current practice and more able to determine its direction. Home economics has been caught in several contradictions: a female-dominated subject in a male-oriented field; a subject which attempts to combine high technical standards with moral and ethical standards; and a subject which is considered both essential and dispensable. We live within the constant tension between home economics as women's knowledge or as knowledge necessary for all human beings to live full lives. Current curriculum revision in British Columbia offers yet another opportunity for home economics to become officially mandated as in 1935 (*Year 2000,* 1989). Can we, as home economists, focus our attention and learn from Jessie McLenaghen's challenges? ☐

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Focus on Home Economics/Human Ecology by University of Alberta Career and Placement Services. (1990). Edmonton: University of Alberta Career and Placement Services, 95 pages.

A degree in home economics provides individuals with a skill and knowledge base appropriate to a diverse range of occupations. This manual emphasizes development of job search skills and awareness of career opportunities as the keys to making the right choice.

Effective job search strategies are outlined, and supplemented with an extensive list of resource materials. One chapter stresses the value of networking through professional associations; the philosophy and scope of activities of seven national and international organizations are described.

The remainder of the book details job opportunities for home economics graduates. Practising professionals have provided a wealth of information on career options, and offer practical advice on achieving career goals. Businesses, organizations, and government agencies that hire home economics graduates are profiled. A chapter is devoted to opportunities in international development.

This manual would be a valuable resource for senior university students enroled in any home economics specialization. The information provided on career opportunities would also be useful to first or second year students who are beginning to explore career paths.

Reviewed by:
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Double Income Families: Money Management for Working Couples by Lynne MacFarlene. (1990). Toronto, ON: Key Porter Books Ltd., 284 pages; $18.95.

Lynne MacFarlene, co-author of *Every Women's Money*, writes this book in the same easy-to-read, chatty manner. Intended for double income middle class families, personal money management is covered from engagement 'til death do they part.

Between sage advice, personal anecdotes, and stories of friends, family, neighbors, and clients the author provides good information. Goal setting, family communication, organizing financial, legal, and household papers, budgeting, contracts and legal agreements, housing, parenting, insurance, investing, inflation, savings, retirement and estate planning, banking, credit, and tax planning are all addressed. There are several excellent examples including a household inventory, a net worth statement, a cash flow or budget, and a suggested filing system readers could use. Legal references are based on Canadian laws and legislation with differences between provinces outlined. There is a thorough index which would allow families to use this book as a reference.

The author has not respected the conflicting demands and time constraints of her intended audience, though she regularly reminds readers how busy they are. Chapters 1,2,3, and 18 could have been left out. The three chapter introduction becomes so tedious the author implores the reader to read on!

Despite that, the broad range of basic money management principles and skills discussed does provide practical, reliable, Canadian information. This would be useful to individuals and families who have secure, adequate incomes yet want to manage their money better.

Reviewed by:
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Home and Family Guide, Practical Action for the Environment by The Harmony Foundation of Canada. (1989). Ottawa, ON: The Harmony Foundation of Canada, 80 pages; $4.95.

The Harmony Foundation is a voluntary organization devoted to helping people help the environment through environmental education programs. Their aim in writing the *Home and Family Guide* was to provide clear, practical information on how to deal with environmental issues in day-to-day life.

This book is designed for the "average consumer", and can be easily read and understood. The use of illustrations and color, and a columnar and well-labelled format make it very user friendly, and the choice of obviously recycled paper stock adds integrity to the book's message.

Background information is provided in four sections: energy, hazardous products, waste reduction, and water conservation. Suggestions for personal action and sources of further information are also included in each section. The book then goes on to examine environmental issues as they affect the various parts of a house (bedroom, kitchen, lawn and garden, etc.), providing further information and suggesting possible actions. This approach is interesting, but also makes for a lot of cross-referencing, which can be distracting.

The main tenet of the book is that *everyone* can do something to help the environment. The suggestions provided are very concrete and specific, ranging from the safe disposal of medicines and left-over paint, to garden pest management, to the amount of money to be saved by using a low-flow showerhead.

Specific products are named, and sources identified (predominantly from central Canada). Reference lists are also provided for each section, as well as a list of suggested reading, and of sources and contacts provided at the back of the book. A glossary at the back of the book also provides some helpful definitions.

The information provided has been drawn from a wide range of subject areas, and there is sure to be something of interest to just about anyone. At the same time, I would hesitate to commend all of the information provided without encouraging the reader to exercise some thought and judgement about some of the issues raised.

In the book's discussion of food production issues, the reader is encouraged to grow her own, or to buy locally. Organic foods are also promoted, based on the assertion that "pesticides, fertilizers, and other agricultural chemicals not only cause health and environmental problems, but their production uses considerable energy". The reduction of meat in the diet is also suggested, "based on health concerns, and the belief that raising meat takes too great a toll on the earth".

It was interesting to note that the *Home and Family Guide* does not attempt to answer the "environmentally-friendly fibre" dilemma. It simply points out the advantages and disadvantages of the various fibres, and concludes with a recommendation that clothing be purchased sparingly, and that the reader reuse, repair, and recycle whenever possible.

While some of us may take issue with a few of the statements made, I believe this publication has merit. What it attempts to do is to provoke a change in the way we do things, and that can be very difficult. The simpler the change needs to be, the greater the chance of success. This small book identifies hundreds of small changes that can be made in every-day living, to the benefit of the planet and future generations. It offers some hope of success.

Reviewed by:
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"It's Up to You" Women at UBC in the Early Years by Lee Stewart. (1990). University of British Columbia Press, 176 pages.

The title of the book, *"It's Up to You"*, refers to the popular translation of the UBC motto, Tumm Est. This motto, and the title of the book, is particularly apt given the subject matter of the book. Lee Stewart chronicles the struggle of women of UBC in their quest for a place for women at UBC. The book covers the period from UBC's inception, around 1915, up to the 1970s.

The book, complete with 12 pages of historical black and white pictures, reviews the pivotal events that involve women and that have contributed to making the University what it is today. The first two chapters cover the more general issues that concerned the establishing of a University in British Columbia in the late 1800s. Chapter three looks at how a nursing program became an affiliate of UBC through the Vancouver City Hospital's School of Nursing, and later, as a Department in the Faculty of Applied Science at UBC, became the first nursing degree program in Canada.

Chapter four is of particular interest to home economists as this chapter is devoted to a discussion of the establishment of a Faculty of Home Economics at UBC. Though nursing had a relatively difficult time of becoming recognized as a viable and needed course of study at UBC, their struggle was not nearly half as difficult as was the contest for a Faculty of Home Economics. A variety of British Columbia women's groups fought for many years over the need for a Faculty of Home Economics in the University. Beset by wars and the depression, the women's groups finally won the battle for a Home Economics Faculty in the year 1943.

The remainder of the book looks at more general issues concerning the role and place of women in the University, such as residences and women's involvement in the various University clubs and athletics.

This is a very concise, well-written, and interesting book that appeals to a wide audience. Because this book reflects upon issues and events that have affected all women who have ever attended a University, the commonalities of the plight to gain a place in this institution will ring true for many. This book offers a welcome pause for reflection of where we came from and where we are doing.

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family and Consumer Studies

Consumer acceptance of cosmetically imperfect produce.

Bunn, D., Feenstra, G., Lynch, L., and Sommer, R. (1990)
The Journal of Consumer Affairs, 24, (2), 268-279.

There is a general belief in the produce industry that consumers insist upon cosmetically perfect fruits and vegetables while consumer advocates and environmentalists argue that consumers are willing to accept some degree of physical imperfection of produce in return for lowered use of pesticides. This study estimates the extent to which consumers will trade off some degree of thrips scarring of oranges for reduced pesticide application.

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with 229 customers at twelve stores of nine chain supermarkets in northern and southern California. Two interviewers were present, one interviewer holding photographs of three different oranges (20% thrips scarring, 10% thrips scarring, and cosmetically perfect) and one interviewer recording customer responses to a structured questionnaire. Customers were asked about their willingness to purchase each of the scarred oranges compared to the cosmetically perfect orange. After the customers had expressed their views, the interviewers gave the customers limited information about pesticide use and its effect on orange scarring. Before the explanation regarding pesticide use, 78% of customers were less willing to purchase the orange with 10% scarring by thrips and 87% of customers were less willing to purchase the orange with 20% scarring by thrips. Following the explanation of pesticide use, the acceptance of the scarred fruit increased significantly with 63% willing to purchase the fruit with 10% scarring by thrips and 58% willing to purchase the fruit with 20% scarring by thrips. In addition, 64% of customers would almost always be willing to make a substitution for other non-treated fruit rather than purchase out-of-season oranges treated with fungicides.

Researchers caution that these results can not be generalized to all produce since, in the case of oranges, the scarring does not affect flavor or nutritional quality. They recommend educational programs tailored to specific crops and actual market studies to determine consumer behavior when given a choice at the point of purchase. Finally, the best method of informing the consumer about agricultural use of chemicals needs to be investigated.

Compliance and comprehension in very young toddlers.

Kaler, S.R. and Kopp, C.B. (1990)
Child Development, 61 (1), 1997-2003.

Past research has investigated compliance among toddlers and young preschoolers with the purpose of exploring age trends and intervening factors such as child attachment to caregiver. The purpose of this research is to determine the role of the child's comprehension of requests in compliance and non-compliance.

Thirty children and their mothers were recruited from toddler programs and divided into three groups of 10 children each at 12-13 months, 14-16 months, and 17-18 months. The gender split in each group was five girls and five boys. The children were videotaped with their mothers and an experimenter in a laboratory setting that simulated an informal living room. Both mother and experimenter sat on the carpet floor and made simple verbal requests ("put the doll on the chair") using the toys provided. Mothers were instructed to minimize gestural cues. The videotapes were coded to evaluate separately noun and verb comprehension focussing solely on child's response to a specific word that represented only part of a request. The tapes were then reviewed to observe compliance and the child's response to an entire request.

No gender differences were evident, therefore all analyses include both boys and girls. As was expected, there was an age effect; the oldest group of children understood significantly more nouns and verbs than the other groups. The children in the youngest group understood and complied to only a quarter of the requests made to them, while the children in the oldest group understood and complied with almost 60% of the requests made to them. When requests were understood, compliance was high in the play setting, 73% for the youngest and middle group, and 77% for the oldest group.

Researchers suggest that younger children perceived unwillingness to comply with requests from adults may be a result of the child's lack of comprehension rather than emergent negativism. Future research in the area of toddler compliance should include a measure of toddler comprehension to facilitate data interpretation, particularily for groups of children who are at risk because of adverse rearing conditions. Non-compliance in these groups may reflect limited understanding due in part to limited environmental input.

Flextime: A viable solution to work family conflict?

Christensen, K. and Staines, G.L. (1990)
Journal of Family Issues, 11, (4), 455-476.

Social commentators have advocated the introduction of flextime to the workplace as a viable way to reduce work/family interference. This article reviews the current research in an effort to assess the reported advantages and disadvantages of flextime to both employees and employers and to assess the empirical support for the introduction of flextime as a resolution to family/work conflict.

Various types of work schedule flexibility are reviewed including reduced time, time-off, place of work options, compressed work weeks, as well as types of flextime programs which include core hours, bands of flexi-hours, variation in lunch breaks, and banked time. Research indicates that there is no strong empirical support that flextime is an advantage to employers in terms of improving organizational effectiveness, organizational membership, or job attitudes. Evidence linking flextime and reduced family/work conflict is inconsistent across measures, studies, and groups within studies. Despite the lack of empirical evidence that flextime is of benefit to employees, enthusiasm for its introduction remains high. Researchers suggest flextime indicates a commitment on the part of employers to recognize employees' family obligations, and high performance employees with family obligations are likely to be attracted to and remain with firms who are sensitive to their needs.

Future research should be designed to include pre-post test situations with larger, more representative sample groups. The introduction of life cycle stage and family type as variables would offer information regarding differing needs of various subgroups. Those who have access to flextime and those who actually use flextime should not be compared since they represent two self-selected groups however, study of each group could be useful for answering different questions.

Students learn by doing: Teaching about rules of thumb.

Cude, B. (1990)
Advancing the Consumer Interest, 2 (2), 19-25.

Consumer educators have emphasized the importance of comparison shopping by informed consumers as a means of making the best possible purchase decisions. Research indicates that when the cost of researching a product is thought to be too high, consumers often rely on "rules of thumb" as a substitute for research. This article reviews the most common "rules of thumb" and offers suggestions for evaluating the efficacy of those rules.

Four quality rules are discussed; buy a known brand, "seals of approval", buy top of the line, and price indicates quality, as well as rules about price, and larger sizes are better buys. The discussion of each rule is followed by empirical evidence regarding the rule's validity in marketing practice, suggestions for learning activities for students, and ideas for group discussion. The author emphasizes the importance of including rules of thumb in any teaching of actual consumer practices. Conventional wisdom should be explored rather than ignored in order to discover which rules are valid and how rules can best be applied.

Subjective well-being among Native and non-Native elderly persons: Do differences exist?

Blandford, A.A. and Neena, N.L. (1990)
Canadian Journal On Aging, 9, (4), 386-399.

Little has been written about the subjective well-being of elderly Native people. The purpose of this study is to determine whether economics, health, and social factors interact with being Native in affecting quality of life.

Researchers compared two groups of elderly persons living in Winnipeg, Manitoba, 193 Native persons aged 50 and over, and 197 non-Native persons aged 60 and over. (The age discrepancies are due to the differences in life-expectancy for Native and non-Native people). The sample of Native people were randomly chosen from a list of all Native persons living in Winnipeg. The non-Native group were drawn from a stratified random sample of persons aged 60 and over living in the same community.

Structured face-to-face interviews averaging one hour in length were conducted. Native respondents were interviewed by Native interviewers in the langugage of the respondents' choice, however, the majority of the interviews were conducted in English. Data were analysed using logistical regression. Ethnicity did not prove to be a significant predictor of overall life satisfaction or loneliness. The major factors affecting overall life satisfaction are health and availability of caregivers' help for both groups. Loneliness in both groups is significantly influenced by poor health, low income, unsatisfactory family relationships, and by being unmarried. The findings in this study suggest disadvantaged health and social circumstances, not race, account for lower levels of subjective well-being.

Supplementary listing of articles:

"Real" consumers just aren't normal. Mueller, J.L. (1990). *Journal of Marketing Research, 7*(1), 51-55.

Home economics in higher education: Communities of convenience or purpose? Vincenti, V.B. (1990). *Home Economics Research Journal, 19*(2), 184-193.

Consumer issues and the elderly. Moon, M. (1990). *The Journal of Consumer Affairs, 24*(2), 235-244.

Thinking and knowledge underlying expertise in parenting: Comparisons between expert and novice mothers. Cooke, B. (1990). *Family Relations, 40*(1), 3-13.

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Foods and Nutrition

Pica practices of pregnant women.

Horner, R.D., Lackey, C.J., Kolasa, K. and Warren, K. (1991)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91, 34-38.

The results of a review of literature published during the period 1950 to 1990 on pica practices during pregnancy were reported in this article. Pica was defined by the authors as eating dirt or clay (geophagia) or eating starch (amylophagia). The practice of pica during pregnancy was characterized into three stages. Susceptibility focused on risk factors for development of pica. The clinical stage dealt with signs and symptoms of pica, while the sequelae stage dealt with deleterious outcomes of pica.

Race was found to be the major risk factor for pica during pregnancy with black women being more than four times as likely to develop pica during pregnancy than were white women. Rural residents were more than twice as likely to exhibit pica than were urban residents. A consistent decline in prevalence odds occurred over time. Women in the 1970s and 1980s were about half as likely to report pica behavior than women during the 1950s. With regards to age, pregnant women with pica tended to be relatively older than women without the behavior. As well, women consuming clay were older than those who ate starch. Pregnant women with pica were nearly six times more likely to report pica during childhood than were pregnant women without pica. As well, women with pica during pregnancy reported pica in other family members, especially mothers and grandmothers. At least one-fifth of high risk pregnant women are affected by pica.

The clinical stage was the least well-described of the three stages. Psychological aspects of pica reported included a craving for the substance, feelings of anxiety and agitation if the substance was not readily available, and a sense of satisfaction after consumption of the substance.

The most common outcomes of pica reported for mothers by the literature were anaemia, iron deficiency, and toxaemia. Outcomes for infants of women with pica included "poor" functional status, prematurity, perinatal mortality, and low birth weight. However, a comparable number of studies failed to show statistically significant associations between the practice of pica during pregnancy and these outcomes.

The authors suggest health professionals working with pregnant women need to recognize pica as a prevalent condition in some groups of women. They should ask clients about pica behavior, counsel them on its possible effects, and monitor clients for anaemia and poor fetal development.

Maintenance and relapse after weight loss in women: Behavioral aspects.

Kayman, S., Bruvold, W., and Stern, J.S. (1990)
American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 52, 800-807.

This study attempted to define how long-term weight-loss maintainers differed from women who relapsed after weight loss and from those who had never been obese. Of the 108 women interviewed, 44 who regained weight after a successful loss were termed relapsers, 30 who had maintained their loss were termed maintainers, and 34 who had always remained at the same non-obese weight were termed controls.

Most maintainers (90%) and controls (82%) reported exercising at least three times per week for 30 minutes or longer, whereas few regainers (34%) reported regular exercise. Most maintainers (86%) and controls (94%) described themselves as thin or of average weight. Over 70% of relapsers felt they were heavy or ugly, while 25% wanted to change everything about their bodies, and 43% reported wanting to be thinner.

Maintainers made decisions to lose weight and then developed a personal weight-loss plan to fit their lifestyle. They reported being patient and setting small, attainable goals. As well, maintainers reported that they did not want to eat as much and that some foods were no longer appealing because they were too sweet or fatty. On the other hand, relapsers tended to lose weight by fasting, taking appetite suppressants, or trying overly restrictive diets. While dieting, they did not allow themselves favorite foods. They felt deprived and easily relapsed into old patterns. Regain was reported after a negative life event by 77% of this group. Few relapsers used problem-solving or confrontive ways of coping with problems and were more likely to use emotion-focused or escape-avoidance coping methods than were maintainers or controls. Available social support was used by 70% of maintainers and 80% of controls, while only 38% of relapsers did so.

Breakfast skipping was reported by 43% of relapsers, 37% of maintainers, and 23% of controls. All three groups reported eating between meal snacks almost daily. Relapsers ate significantly more snacks than either of the other two groups. They also ate more candy and chocolate than the other groups. Both relapsers and maintainers consumed more diet soda than did controls.

Use of cholesterol measurements in childhood for the prediction of adult hypercholesterolemia. The Muscatine Study.

Lauer, R.M. and Clarke W.R. (1990)
Journal of the American Medical Association, 264, 3034-3038.

This study described the relationship between childhood and adult serum cholesterol levels in a cohort of 2367 persons, 1234 females, and 1133 males. Fasting total serum cholesterol was measured twice in children aged 5 to 18 years during the period 1971 to 1981. Between 1981 and 1985, subjects aged 20 to 30 years were retested. Two childhood age/gender-specific percentile cutoff points were selected to test the utility of these measures to predict adult cholesterol levels greater than or equal to 5.17 mmol/L. These two cutoff points were the 75th and 90th percentiles. Estimates of the proportions of children per 1000 screened who would be correctly or incorrectly labelled at-risk in adulthood were determined.

For adults aged 20 to 25 years with childhood serum cholesterol levels exceeding the 75th percentile on two occasions, 43% of females and 55% of males did not have adult levels above 5.17 mmol/L. Using two childhood measurements greater than or equal to the 90th percentile, 25% of both sexes were incorrectly labelled as higher risk adults. Of the children labelled positive using the 75th percentile criteria, 17% had adult levels above or equal to 6.20 mmol/L and 36% had adult levels between 5.17 and 6.18 mmol/L, while 47% had levels below 5.17 mmol/L. With the 90th percentile criteria, of the children labelled positive, 34% had adult levels greater than or equal to 6.20 mmol/L, 37% had levels that fell between 5.17 and 6.18 mmol/L, and 29% had levels below 5.17 mmol/L.

The authors state that the need for mass screening during childhood must be considered carefully due to the large numbers of children with high cholesterol levels whose levels do not meet the criteria for intervention as adults.

Evaluation of a low temperature meat cooker for the home.

Smith, J.M. and LeBlanc, D.I. (1990)
Canadian Institute of Food Science and Technology Journal, 23, 207-211.

This study compared the energy consumption, cooking time, and product acceptability of meat and poultry prepared in a low temperature meat cooker and that cooked with conventional methods. The low temperature method consisted of placing meat or poultry in a clear high density polyethylene cooking bag and expelling most of the air. The bag was placed in the cooker and covered with water. Conventional methods included panfrying and roasting by procedures established using Agriculture Canada guidelines. Loin pork chops, boneless beef rump roasts, and chicken legs were cooked using both cooking methods.

The low temperature meat cooker method resulted in lower mean energy consumption than did conventional methods. It used 8%, 15%, and 51% of the energy used to conventionally cook chicken legs, beef roast, and pork chops, respectively. Mean cooking time for pork chops using the low temperature method was nearly double that of the conventional method. Beef roasts took about one-third more cooking with the low temperature method when compared to conventional roasting. Chicken legs prepared in the low temperature cooker took half the cooking of oven roasting.

Sensory evaluation showed no significant differences in mean hedonic scores for appearance, texture, flavor, and overall acceptability of meat or poultry cooked by either the low temperature method or the conventional method. The one exception was for the appearance of the panfried pork chop which was preferred over that of the low temperature cooked chop.

The authors concluded that despite the energy efficient alternate cooking method provided by the low temperature meat cooker, the reduction in energy consumption was small and any cost saving would be minimal to the consumer.

Effect of dietary trans fatty acids on high-density and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol levels in healthy subjects.

Mensink, R.P., and Katan, M.B. (1990)
New England Journal of Medicine, 323, 439-445.

The effects of trans fatty acids on serum lipoprotein levels were studied in 34 women (mean age — 26 years; mean BMI — 22.0) and 25 men (mean age — 25 years; mean BMI — 22.0). Subjects followed three conventional food diets in random order for three weeks each. Nutrient content of the three diets was similar except for 10% of total energy which was provided by oleic acid (monounsaturated), trans isomers of oleic acid (elaidic acid), or saturated fatty acids (lauric and palmitic acids). Diets were formulated at 28 energy levels ranging from 5.5 to 20.0 Mjoules (1315 to 4780 kilocalories) daily to accommodate the average energy intakes of subjects. Total fat and cholesterol intakes did not differ among diets during the study.

The mean total serum cholesterol level was 0.26 mmol/L higher than the oleic acid diet while on the trans fatty acid diet, and 0.54 mmol/L higher while on the saturated fatty acid diet. On the trans fatty acid diet, mean HDL-cholesterol level was 0.17 mmol/L lower than the mean value on the high oleic acid diet. On the saturated fatty acid diet, HDL-cholesterol was not significantly different than the level while on the oleic acid diet. LDL-cholesterol level was 0.37 mmol/L higher on the trans fatty acid diet and 0.47 mmol/L higher on the saturated fatty acid diet when compared to the oleic acid diet. The effects on serum lipoprotein levels did not differ between men and women.

Despite limitations in study design, this investigation showed that trans fatty acids were hypercholesterolemic when compared with oleic acid. This effect was about half that of a mixture of saturated fatty acids. As this is the first study to draw these conclusions, further research is needed as confirmation prior to making any dietary recommendations.

Supplementary listing of articles:

A double-blind study of symptom provocation to determine food sensitivity. Jewett, D.L., Fein, G., and Greenberg, M.H. (1990). *New England Journal of Medicine, 323*, 429-433.

Weight and dieting concerns in adolescent. Fashion or symptom? Casper, R.C. and Offer, D. (1990). *Pediatrics, 86*, 384-390.

Association entre la consommation maternelle de cigarettes et le mode d'allaitement. Labrecque, M., Marcoux, S., and Tennina., S. (1990). *Canadian Journal of Public Health, 81*, 439-442.

Nutritional therapy for infants with diarrhea. Lifschitz, C.H. and Schulman, R.J. (1990). *Nutrition Reviews, 48*, 329-338.

Genetic defects in lipoprotein metabolism. Evaluation of atherogenic lipoproteins caused by impaired catabolism. Mahley, R.W., Weisgraber, K.H., Innerarity, T.L., and Rall, Jr., S.C. (1991). *Journal of the American Medical Association, 265*, 78-83.

Helping families manage eating difficulties in the toddler and preschooler. Carroll, J.C. and White, D.G. (1990). *Canadian Family Physician, 36*, 1583-1588.

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Textiles and Clothing

Determining short fiber content in cotton. Part 1: Some theoretical fundamentals.

Zeidman, M.I., Subhash, B.K., and Sasser, P.E. (1991)
Textile Research Journal, 61(1), 21-30.

Fibre length distribution is a critical element in yarn manufacture that determines yarn properties. Short fibres are responsible for strand irregularities and have nearly negligible contribution to yarn strength. In order to produce high quality cotton yarns it is important to measure the short fibre content (SFC) of the cotton. Zeidman, Subhash, and Sasser attempt to determine if SFC can be inferred from the length parameters of **number** and **weight**. The short fibre number (SFN) is the relative number of fibres shorter than 1.27 cm. The short fibre weight (SFW) represents the relative weight of fibres shorter than 1.27 cm. Distributions of the SFN and SFW are compared for "similar distribution". As a length parameter, the SFC is related to both the range and shape of the fibre length distributions. The formulation of equations needed to determine the SFC of a binary mixture were developed.

Searching for visual inconsistencies: A method for analyzing unity in apparel design.

Workman, J.E. (1991)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9(2), 45-48.

In an analysis of the unity of uniforms, Jones' method of "searching for visual inconsistencies" was tested for its applicability to apparel design. Popular articles dealing with uniform design changes were analyzed using Jones' method. Samples and/or photographs of existing designs were examined and given an objective description; apparent inconsistencies and contradictions in the arrangement and purposes of components of the design were identified; reasons for these inconsistencies were inferred and causes of design change were sought; and ways of removing inconsistencies and of adapting to external causes of change are envisaged. Categories in which visual inconsistencies were detected were: between garment parts within a design, between garment and accessories, between ensemble and person wearing it, and between the apparel-body construct and the situation in which it was placed. These inconsistencies were interpreted to be resulting from: a lack of garment functionality, a lack of thought in the design process, a lack of the setting of appropriate and relevant design criteria, a lack of understanding of the situation's impact, and the underlying reasons that provided stimulus for a design change. Jones' method of "searching for visual inconsistencies" was found to be appropriate for this situation.

Influence of lifestyle and evaluative criteria for apparel on information search among non-employed female consumers.

Shim, S. and Drake, M.F. (1990)
Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics, 14(4).

The Engel, Kollat, and Blackwell (EKB) High Involvement Model of Consumer Behavior was used in investigating the link between lifestyle, evaluative criteria, and information search of non-employed females. Results from the completion of a self-administered questionnaire by respondents from a random sample from the 50 United States lead to the identification of four information search patterns: mass-media researcher, professional searcher, store-intensive searcher, and pal-advice searcher. Based on these search profiles, the board implications of the results include: where, what types, and how information might be best suited to each profile group. Shim and Drake concluded that lifestyle factors explained information search patterns better than evaluative criteria, therefore the EKB model would more accurately represent the findings if the lifestyle and search stage were more direct.

An investigation of the afterrinsing and washing of fiber reactive dyes.

Hobbs, M., Besnoy, R., Duggan, D., Tremain, R., and Weaver, M. (1991)
Textile Chemist and Colorist, 23(1), 13-18.

In an attempt to conserve water and limit chemical releases while, at the same time, maintain high quality dyeings, the optimization of afterrinsing and washing sequences of dyeing cycles was investigated. The method developed included placing hydrolysed fibre reactive dye onto 100% cotton packages for subsequent afterrinsing and washing at varied time, temperature, and flow rate. Results indicate that the amount of dye removed by afterrinsing increased as a function of water temperature and that acceptable wetfastness does not necessitate emptying the kier after dyeing. The authors were able to develop an experimental method for evaluating the most advantageous method for afterrinsing and washing so that temperature, pH, electrolytic concentration, and flow rates may be monitored, compared, and optimized to reduce overall cycle time, reduce energy consumption, reduce waste water volume, and improve wetfastness.

Supplementary listing of articles:

A state apparel industry needs assessment: Special concerns for rural economies. Dickerson, K., Dalecki, M., and Meyer, M. (1991). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9*(2), 37-44.

The Kendal pattern book. Satchell, J.E., Glover, J.M., Ryder, M.L., Taylor, G.W., and Garland, H.E. (1990). *Textile History, 21*(2), 223-243.

Design characteristics an inspiration sources of depression era quilts. Blanchard, R.T., Feather, B.L., and Wilson, L. (1991). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9*(2), 56-64.

Consumers of customized sewing services. Johnson, J.S., Littrel, M.A., and Reilly, R. (1991). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 9*(2), 7-15.

An empirical model for fabric hand. Part 1: Objective assessment of light weight fabrics. Raheel, M., and Liu, J. (1991). *Textile Research Journal, 61*(1), 31-38.

The examination of metal from historic Indian textiles using scanning electron microscope-energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry. Indictor, N., and Blair, C. (1990). *Textile History, 21*(2), 149-163.

Submited by:
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Compiled by Brenda White

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This is the name of a package designed to help students and others research family topics. It introduces users to basic family resources and gives tips to find information quickly. It describes library services available in major centres and outlying areas and how to find statistics and government documents. The kit also looks at special reference materials of interest to family researchers.

To order: Send $5.00 plus 7% GST to Vanier Institute, 120 Holland Avenue, Suite 300, Ottawa, ON, K1Y 0X6.

Vanier Institute of the Family Publications List

Violence in Contemporary Canadian Society ... Canadian Women: The Next Twenty Years ... Families in the 1990s — In Control or Out of Control? These are just three of several nominally priced publications from the Vanier Institute of the Family's Publications List.

To obtain a free copy: Write to the Vanier Institute of the Family, 120 Holland Avenue, Suite 300, Ottawa, ON, K1Y 0X6.

Doing It Right!

This is the title of a needs assessment workbook which will be of interest to anyone conducting or managing a needs assessment. The cost of this very practical and concise book is $9.95 (plus GST).

To order: Send a cheque or money order to Publications and Membership, Edmonton Social Planning Council, 41, 9912 106 Street, Edmonton, AB, T5K 1C5.

How Now Green Cow

This kit contains fact sheets on the role of beef cattle in world food and environmental issues. It is available free of charge.

To order a copy: Write to Beef Information Center, 590 Keele Street, Suite 422, Toronto, ON, M6N 3E3.

Modified Atmosphere Packaging Publications

Modified Atmosphere Packaging extends the shelf life of a wide variety of products and can satisfy many of the consumer demands for freshness, quality, and convenience. The process involves modifying the composition of the natural atmosphere inside a package by surrounding the food with a selected combination of gases, normally found in the atmosphere we breathe, and then sealing the package. Three publications on this topic, sub-titled "An Extended Shelf Life Packaging Technology", "The Consumer Perspective", and "Investment Decisions" are available free of charge.

To order: Write to Food Development Division, Agriculture Development Branch, Agriculture Canada, 930 Carling Avenue, Ottawa, ON, K1A 0C5.

Work-Related Child Care in Canada

This report highlights the increasing involvement of employers in the provision of child care. Prepared for the Women's Bureau of Labour Canada, this document profiles 22 existing programs and notes new services and benefits employers are offering their employees and their children. Available in English and French at no charge.

To obtain a copy: Write to Publications Distribution Center, Labour Canada, Ottawa, ON, K1A 0J2.

More Than Just a Job

This video promotes non-sexist career choices for men and women by profiling people working in fields not commonly associated with their gender. It is available in both English and French in VHS format.

To rent or purchase: Contact LM Media Marketing Services Ltd., 115 Torbay, Unit 9, Markham, ON, L3R 2M9.

Catching Our Breath

Smoking among women is related to self-esteem issues and the status of women in society. *Catching Our Breath: A Journal About Change for Women Who Smoke* can be used by individuals on their own or in a group situation. It takes a wholistic view of women's addictions and of the healing required for women to quit. Journals are $10.00 each (plus GST) and a facilitator's guide is $10.00 (plus GST).

To order: Send a cheque or money order to Women's Health Clinic, 3rd Floor, 419 Graham Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba, R3C 0M3.

Women and AIDS

The discussion paper, entitled "Women and AIDS: A challenge for Canada in the Nineties" was designed to serve three purposes. These were: to increase awareness about women and HIV infection, to summarize information about prevention issues and approaches, and to provide a framework and model which will guide Canada's action on education and prevention. Copies are available at no charge in both English and French.

To obtain a copy: Write to Health Services and Promotion Branch. Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, ON, K1A 1B4.

Canadian Institute of Child Health Publications List

This national, independent, nonprofit organization promotes the health and well-being of children through investigating issues, advocacy, and education. Its publication list contains numerous print materials on such topics as latchkey children, safe playgrounds, sexual abuse, fitness for children, and coping with pre-term birth. Many publications are available in both English and French. Free copies of the catalogue/order form are available.

Write to: Canadian Institute of Child Health, 55 Parkdale, 3rd Floor, Ottawa, ON, K1Y 1E5.

InformAction

More than two-thirds of Canadians say the workplace is an appropriate place for health promotion. Participation has developed InformAction, a bilingual service providing health, fitness, and safety information in corporate, employee, or membership newsletters. This resource comes in both diskette and ready-to-clip formats six times a year. It provides easy-to-read, ready-to-print text, and original artwork in four key areas: lifestyle choices, prevention measures, mental health concerns, and healthy environments.

For more information: Contact InformAction, c/o Participaction, Suite 400, 1565 Carling Avenue, Ottawa, ON, K1Z 8R1.

Corporate Challenge Mini Kit

To meet a need expressed by small rural communities and individual companies participating in Health and Welfare Canada's Corporate Challenge events, a condensed version of the Corporate Challenge Organizer's Kit has been produced.

It includes sample materials and resources for sponsoring smaller Corporate Challenge events than those held in a large urban environment.

Copies of the Mini Kit (in English or French) are available to those intending to hold a corporate challenge event.

For more information: Write to Health Promotion in the Workplace, Health and Welfare Canada, 4th Floor, Ottawa, ON, K1A 1B4.

Charting Canada's Future

The major trends that will shape Canada's future are presented in *Charting Canada's Future.* This report is based on research conducted by a federal government review committee and should form the basis of future discussions with Canadians from all sectors. Copies are available free of charge.

To obtain a copy: Write to Demographic Review Secretariat, Brooke Claxton Building, Room 1654, Tunney's Pasture, Ottawa, ON, K1A 0K9.

Plastics & Cookware Safety in the Microwave

Are some plastics safe to use in the microwave? If so, which ones? What types of containers are appropriate to use in the microwave? A new booklet and fact sheets on this subject, written by the Product Safety Division of Health and Welfare Canada is to be available free of charge in late 1991.

To obtain a copy: Write to Communications Directorate, Health and Welfare Canada, 19th Floor, Jeanne Mance Building, Ottawa, ON, K1A 0K9.

Regulations and the Food Industry

In 1990, Agriculture Canada produced 4 fact sheets on this subject in cooperation with federal and provincial health and agricultural officials. The titles are: Government Regulations in the Dairy Industry, Government Regulations in the Red Meat Industry, and Government Regulations in the Egg Industry. These free fact sheets are available in both English and French.

To obtain a copy: Write to Food Development Division, Agriculture Canada, 930 Carling Avenue, Ottawa, ON, K1A 0C5.

Access/Accès

This newsletter is published three times a year by the Canadian Bankers' Association. Each issue has feature articles and student activities (one each for primary, middle, and senior grades) related to current financial facts, news, and information. It is distributed free of charge to educators and others who are involved with consumer education across the country. Available in English and French.

To get on the mailing list: Write to the Canadian Bankers' Association, Box 348, 2 First Canadian Place, Toronto, ON, M5X 1E1.

...... In Products

Health Problems Associated with Humidifiers

Research has shown that water left sitting in most types of humidifiers becomes stagnant and acts as a breeding ground for bacteria and fungi. This may contribute to the "sick building phenomenon" when these bacteria and/or fungi are blown or sprayed into the air where they can trigger a host of problems.

If humidifiers are used, it is important that they are properly maintained. The inside and filter should be regularly scrubbed with a disinfectant cleanser, rinsed well with hot water, and allowed to dry thoroughly before refilling. Distilled or de-ionized water is best to use as tap water used in humidifiers has been shown to release particles which trigger respiratory irritations.

Better yet, rely on natural sources to supply needed humidity — leave bathroom door open when taking a shower, boil water in a kettle or pot, and seal your house well.

Source: *Safety Canada:* A Publication of the Canada Safety Council, Vol. 34, No. 4, 1990.

Create Crispness in the Microwave

Give an "oven baked" crispness to foods cooked in the microwave by using *MicroCrisp*, a foil-like product which converts some microwave energy into thermal energy (oven heat).

Available in a convenient roll like waxed paper or foil, *MicroCrisp* is a special coated sheeting laminated to paper. The sheets are safe to handle immediately after use and contain nothing to alter the taste of the food. It absorbs excess moisture from foods, eliminating sogginess, especially on the bottom of such items as pizza, quiche, and coffee cakes.

Source: *News Release*, Associated Brands, Toronto, November 30, 1990.

Styrofoam Wallmate

Styrofoam Wallmate introduces the new interior rigid board insulation that recognizes the differences in above and below grade needs. Wallmate goes on top of existing walls and then it can be drywalled. The innovative slotted feature accepts wood nailing strips to which drywall is fastened. This makes it easy for basement renovations. This product eliminates framing, there are no walls to knock down, no cavities to fill — just a solid perfect wall.

Source: *Creative Homestyles*, Winter 1990/91.

Fibatape

Fibatape provides first aid for walls while providing 100% fiberglass strength. Suitable for indoor or outdoor application, you tape it, plaster, sand, and you are done. It reinforces as it patches with no blistering joints. It eliminates pre-plastering when stuccoing. When used with gutter mastic, roof sealant, caulking compounds, etc...., it strengthens and supports the renovation. When applied along with mending and bonding adhesives, *Fibatape* helps in the transmission of stress.

Source: *Creative Homestyles,* Winter 1990/91.

Fibre Cleans Up Environment

The State Textile Research of Czechoslovakia is producing a new fabric called *Fibroid,* designed for use in absorbing oil and other environmental cleanups.

Based on a polypropylene-polyethylene fibrillated film, the material is 15-30 percent pulverized limestone. The film complex fibre network system has numerous cracks and pores which contribute to its absorption and ability to retain organic matter.

Tests reveal that after the material is used up to 35 cycles in which it is squeezed to release oil, *Fibroid* retained 50 percent of its absorption potential.

Source: *Textile World,* November 1990.

Teflon Survives, Zepel Does Not

After consumer research showed that 90 percent of people recognize its *Teflon* name, DuPont is abandoning the *Zepel* brand name and will carry the *Teflon* identification on both homefurnishings and apparel fabrics that are treated with this stain-resistant, water-repellent, fluorochemical finish.

Since 1963, *Zepel* was carried on apparel fabrics; *Teflon* on home textiles. A world wide advertising and promotional campaign will support this year's consolidation of the finish under a single name.

Source: *Textile World,* January 1991.

Garment Is Whole Body Cooling System

It looks ordinary and feels like long underwear, but the soft, flame-retardant garment is Canada's first whole body cooling system.

Developed by researchers at Atomic Energy of Canada Limited and produced by Exotemp Ltd., near Ottawa, the products are sold under the licensed trademark, *Pro-Kool.*

Sewn into a light, stretchy fabric called *Nomex,* thin plastic tubes are connected to a control switch and portable battery-operated coolant packs. When the unit is switched on, ice water is fed through the tubes enabling the wearer to endure high temperatures for 30 minutes to three hours, depending on the design.

The three-piece suit, costing about $1,200, will be useful for workers removing asbestos insulation, workers involved with chemical cleanups, firefighters, the armed forces, utility workers, and as survival gear in tropical climates.

Source: *The Times-Transcript,* September 20, 1990.

RNIs and RDAs — What's the Difference?

RNIs (Recommended Nutrient Intakes) are standards developed for Canadians; RDAs (Recommended Daily Allowances) are for Americans. With the open media exchange across the borders, Canadians may be hearing about both.

The RNIs and RDAs:

- include tables that list recommended daily intakes for age and gender groups (the breakdown of the groups differs).
- emphasize that "daily" should be interpreted as an average over time, different for each nutrient; the RNIs suggest a week as a good average.
- are designed for healthy people.
- are "best estimates" of nutrient intakes sufficient for most people determined by expert scientists using current nutrition research.
- are not minimum intakes; you will not be deficient if the RNI or RDA is not met for one or several days, and you are not guaranteed protection from illness if you receive the recommended intakes every day.

Because no two groups of nutrition experts are likely to agree entirely, the RNI and RDA values differ for some nutrients. The RNIs tend to be slightly lower, although this is not consistent. Vitamin C and calcium represent the greatest differences. The Canadian Group has found no evidence of additional health benefits with intakes of Vitamin C more than 30 mg/day for women and 40 mg/day for men. The American group believes that an intake of 60 mg/day for both men and women is prudent.

The RDAs for calcium are greater than the RNIs for up to 25 years of age. The rationale of the RDAs is the need to ensure adequate calcium intake during the period of bone development; the RNIs indicate that adaption can occur at lower intakes.

Ongoing research shall continue to refine our understanding of nutrient requirements.

Source: *Rapport,* Vol. 5, No. 4, October 1990.

Change in Canada's Guidelines for Healthy Eating

Canada's Guidelines for Healthy Eating (1990) have a change to them and are thus now called *Canada's Guidelines for Healthy Eating* (1991). The change refers to the third guideline — "low" has been changed to "lower" and "lean" to "leaner". The third guideline now reads: "Choose lower-fat dairy products, leaner meats and foods prepared with little or no fat." In French, the new wording is as follows: "Optez pour des produits laitiers moins gras, des viandes plus maigres et des aliments préparés avec peu ou pas de matières grasses".

Source: Correspondence from Minister of National Health and Welfare, February 7, 1991.

Health News: A Good Story or a Good Study?

To help you decide whether or not you should believe everything you read about medical "breakthroughs":

- don't jump to conclusions. Changing daily habits on a basis of a single study is almost never a good idea.
- keep your skepticism in working order. Progress in science is measured less often by dramatic insights than by the slow accumulation of knowledge. "Medical milestone" in a press report is like the word "natural" on a good package — something to arouse rather than allay your suspicions.
- notice where the information is coming from. Look for the citing of reliable scientific sources.
- use logic and common sense. If the article says that Japanese people are healthier than North Americans and claims it is because the Japanese eat more fish, stop and think. They also eat a lot of rice. They sleep on mats instead of mattresses. How does the writer know it is the fish that does the trick?
- try to distinguish between promising advances that are reported as scientific news and public health recommendations. If doctors have just done the first successful liver transplant, that is interesting. But it does not mean there is now a cure for liver disease. On the other hand, if the Surgeon General or the American Cancer Society says "do not smoke", you can safely assume that many studies support this advice.

Source: *Canadian Consumer*, February 1991.

Ten Ways to Lose Trust and Credibility

Trust and credibility are two essential characteristics for respected professionals and their organizations. Ensure you avoid these ten ways to lose trust and credibility:

- do not include people in decisions.
- hold onto information.
- ignore people's feelings.
- do not follow up.
- if you make a mistake, deny it.
- if you do not know the answer, fake it.
- do not speak in plain English.
- be a bureaucrat.
- delay or avoid talking to other organizations.
- send your introverted scientist to do a public presentation or to a media event.

Source: *Fresh News*, Fresh for Flavor Foundation, July 1990.

Fall '91 Fabrics Shine, Stretch, Crumple, and Pleat

The top ten fabrics considered to be the most important for fall 1991:

- blends containing spandex (not meant to be body-hugging, but selected for drape and comfort). They will show up in linen blends, velvets, iridescent fabrics, and everything but traditional knits.
- microdenier fabrics. They will include polyester blended with cotton, nylon, or silk, brushed and unbrushed.
- iridescent in some fabrics including velvets, linens, taffetas, and chiffon.
- velvets in stretch and crushed versions.
- chine (menswear) effects that contain subtle metallic shine.
- satin in outerwear, blouses, and dresses.
- plastic looks with rubberized and pearlized coatings, crumpled, and pleated.
- soft luxury textiles, such as boucle, crepe, and chenille in all weights.
- brushed surfaces, including felts, meltons, boiled wools, piles, and fake furs.
- winter linens (new blends with wool or cotton).

Source: *Textile World*, August 1990.

Banks — Into More than Money?

Canada's Bank Act may be up for revision in 1991. This would be only part of a federal government plan to reform Canada's financial institutions. The Canadian Banker's Association (CBA) suggested two major revisions. One was a proposal that would allow chartered banks to offer insurance services to its customers and the other was a proposal to offer a car leasing service. The CBA cited lower prices for consumers, more options, and increased convenience as the key benefits. Groups such as the Consumers' Association of Canada and the Insurance Bureau of Canada are concerned that banks' expanded services may lead to conflicts of interest which could result in unethical selling practices, predatory pricing (subsidizing insurance operations from other operations and driving prices down to a level which small insurance companies could not compete with), and consumers not receiving the best information about insurance due to poorly trained bank personnel.

Whatever the outcome may be in the near future, senior bank officers are confident that banks will eventually offer consumers not only insurance and car leasing but also many other new products.

Source: *Access*, Canadian Bankers' Association Newsletter, January 1991.

Eliminate "Ethnicity"?

The Working Group on Census Terminology decided to eliminate the word "ethnicity" from the glossary used in Canada's Census on June 4, 1991. This was done because of the imprecise and complexity of the term. For most people, ethnicity conjures up two meanings — "ethnic origin" and "ethnic identity". They suggest others do the same in their writing and in their vocabulary.

Source: *Focus for the Future*, Statistics Canada, November 1990.

...... In Trends

Become A Trend Tracker

Tracking trends can help you and/or your organization prosper by developing products and strategies that meet the needs of our changing world. Tips to track trends include:

- read at least 3 key newspapers a day. In addition, read a number of magazines, trade journals, and newsletters.
- when reading newspapers, focus mainly on stories that have social, economic, and political significance.
- take note that a trend is a "definite, predictable direction or sequence of events", and you need at least two events to

form a sequence. For example, you read that 85 percent of high school graduates who applied for a job with a company failed a test of basic skills. That is an event, not a trend. But it may be the beginning of a trend.

- once you have what you believe is a trend, test it. Ask what caused it and what likely effects it will have. If the answers are trivial, it is not a trend.
- keep in mind that you often find the causes and effects of a trend outside its field. For example, a cause of the decline of the public school system could be the breakdown of the nuclear family. An effect may be the loss of competitiveness in the global market.

Source: *Communication Briefings*, Vol. 10, No. 3, January 1991.

The Information Age Office

The business office is changing so fast that, by the end of the 1990s, it may seem more like an information control room than a place to rest your feet or write memos.

A new attitude — that people and applications, not hardware, fuel the economy — is leading computer manufacturers to design "information appliances" that have all the power of a minicomputer but are as easy to use as a toaster.

In the near future, the telephone, fax machine, photocopier, color printer, and computer will be integrated components in one information appliance. It will display pictures of phone callers, take dictation, handle messages, receive and review electronic mail, and dispatch letters at designated times. This "information jukebox" will shuffle 10 billion or 100 billion byte capacity optical laser discs (the same laser discs or CD you now use to listen to music).

Computer software, too, will be more intelligent. In essence, these programs will write themselves. They will automatically collect and analyze data, the way a good research assistant does today.

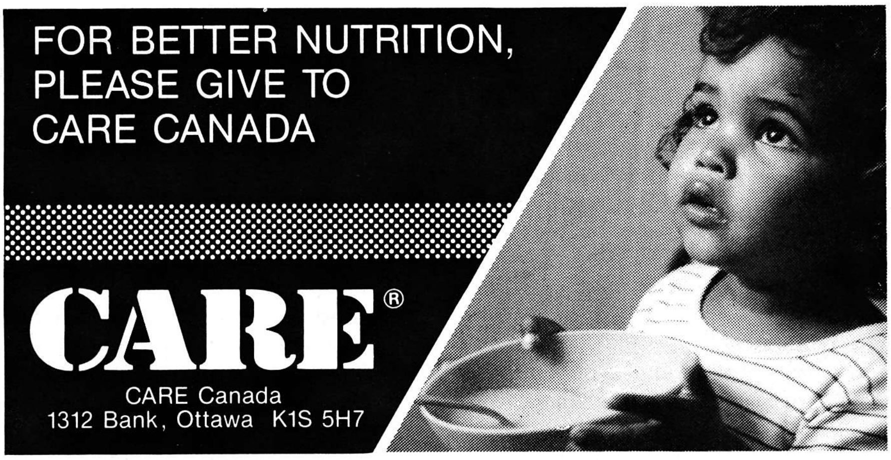
Today, you and your computer converse. In the future, you will be connected not only to global information sources, but to other computers nearby. "Networked" computing is a tidal wave in the making.

The future holds a lot of teamwork. Meeting rooms will be equipped with pop-up computer terminals, embedded keyboards, laser CDs, and touch-sensitive screens for pointing. People will arrive at meetings carrying a single CD that would contain the information contents of their entire filing cabinet. No more fumbling to find a report or article.

The miniaturization of office technology, along with the increased need for teamwork, will force workers to be more mobile. Companies will reduce the amount of office space they need. One way to do this will be to create "landing sites" — non-assigned spaces equipped with intelligent information appliances.

You will be part of the new mobile work force. And when your information appliance responds to your first voice command, you know that you are working in the office of the future.

Source: *The Futurist*, Vol. 25, No. 1, January/February 1991.



What do you say when . . .?

What do you say when consumers ask you about standards and the globalization of the marketplace?

Linda A. Lusby

In Canada today, we have a growing body of products, services, processes, and technologies which fall within the purview of standards. A standard has been defined by the Standards Council of Canada as "a published document which contains requirements, procedures, or definitions for a specific activity" (Hagan, 1988, p.7). The International Organization for Standardization takes this definition a bit further by explaining that a standard is customarily produced to address the "resolution of actual or potential problems" (Hagan, 1988, p.7, citing ISO Guide 2) by establishing provisions for repetitive use.

Industry associations, governments, and a great number of other organizations develop standards aimed at meeting their own or public requirements. As professionals and as consumers of products ourselves, we have become accustomed to looking for the symbols which indicate to us that a product meets a given standard. We have some confidence then, that it was produced with some or all of the general goals of standards in view. Goals which address issues of health, safety, environmental security or preservation, and consumer protection have long been instrumental in the development of our standards. Today we see an increased concentration on the development of environmental standards with the Canadian Standards Association's administration of the *EcoLogo* symbol and its attendant standards.

Standards within a domestic market are a relatively simple concept to understand, and although difficulties do arise, they are comparatively manageable in their development and administration. But today's market is increasingly becoming a globalized one and the products on our shelves come from all over the world, just as the products produced in Canada are distributed to the far corners of the earth. How do standards work, in this modern context?

Trade Agreements

Perhaps the first exposure Canadians had to the question posed here was during the negotiations for the Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement (FTA). Technical standards were considered so vital that they warranted their own chapter in the final document and have been the subject of much discussion and controversy. In the preamble to Chapter 6 — Technical Barriers, the drafters of the FTA explain that while "the right to maintain regulations to protect human, animal and plant life, the environment or for a variety of other purposes is a sovereign issue for each country to decide, [s]uch regulations for health, safety, environmental, national security and consumer protection reasons . . . can constitute severe barriers to trade . . ." (FTA, 1988, p.69). Article 603 of the agreement thus designates that "Neither Party shall maintain or introduce standards-related measures or procedures for product approval that would create unnecessary obstacles to trade between the territories of the Parties." "Unnecesary obstacles" are deemed not to be created if the standard in question is demonstrated to be for a "legitimate domestic objective" or if the standard does not operate to exclude goods of the other party which meet that objective.

Article 604 of the FTA addresses the issue of compatibility and acknowledges the international standardization activities which are currently ongoing. It instructs the Parties to make compatible their standards-related measures to the greatest extent possible and, in Article 609, defines "make compatible" as "the process by which differing standards, technical regulations or certification systems of the same scope which have been approved by different standardizing bodies are recognized as being either technically identical or technically equivalent in practice."

Such a mutual recognition policy very closely resembles one included in the European Community's discussions as they approach the formation of a European Single Market by 1992 (Woods, 1990). A principle originally laid down in a 1978 European Court case has been formalized to state "that a product lawfully produced and marketed according to the rules of an individual member state should be allowed free

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movement throughout the EC, the only exceptions being ones in which national standards were required for genuine health or consumer protection reasons" (Quelch, Buzzel, & Salama, 1990, p.30).

In parallel measures in both the Canada-U.S. Free Trade Agreement and the proposals for the EC Common Market, provisions are made for the harmonization of technical standards, especially in those areas where mutual recognition would be considered insufficient for a guarantee of freer trade. Such provisions re-affirm the Parties' committment to the GATT Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade, originally signed by Canada and 39 other countries following the Tokyo Round of GATT negotiations in 1979. This agreement, also known as the Standards Code, stipulates that "open procedures must be followed in developing new standards, technical regulations or certification requirements, or in revising old ones" (Woods, 1990, p.1). In its 1989-1990 Annual Report, the Standards Council of Canada reported that in this regard, its communication with foreign national, regional, and international standards organizations reached an all-time high.

Consumer Concerns

One of the chief concerns which surrounds both the principles of mutual recognition and of harmonization is that they will lead to a lowering of standards to the lowest common denominator. Suspicions that the more stringent standards of one country may be eroded by what are perceived to be inferior standards of another are creating long delays and prompting consumer organizations and other concerned bodies to call for increased vigilence in the standards writing process (Quelch et al., 1990; Lister, 1990).

Further concerns have surfaced regarding the categories of standards which have been designated for the mutual recognition process and those which may be deemed to be for a legitimate domestic objective and therefore justifiable as a barrier to trade. The European Community is currently promoting a concept that establishes broad minimum standards for public health and safety, and environmental and consumer protection (Woods, 1990). Article 609 of the Canada/U.S. FTA defines a legitimate domestic objective as one whose "purpose is to protect health, safety, essential security, the environment, or consumer interests". It remains to be seen how these will be defined in practice, but complaints have already been leveled that these factors do not encompass standards for social programs, working conditions or wages, nor do they adequately address concerns for the environment (Barlow, 1990). These are factors which we as home economists must be ever cognizant of and add our voices to those lobbying for consensus in the harmonization and recognition processes.

Final arguments both for and against the pursuit of international standards must be made on the part of those who are not currently involved in either of the trade agreements discussed above. The wide differences which exist between the standards recognized by industrialized and developing nations are said to be putting the lives of millions of workers in the developing world and the lives of millions of consumers of imported products at risk (Brem, 1990; Kerton, 1990). While a single international standard may be desirable from the standpoint of preventing industrialized countries from dumping banned products in less-developed countries, or operating multinational branch plants in areas where stringent safety standards do not apply, many developing countries simply will not be able to meet a standard of the industrialized countries. The advisability of establishing truly international standards may also come into question when one considers the vast geographic, climatic, and situational differences which exist around the globe and which may well render a particular standard too stringent or too lax, depending on the circumstances of use.

The Home Economist in the Marketplace

As negotiations between countries proceed and more trade agreements develop or new trading or business partners emerge, standards will assume ever more important roles. With their original goals of providing for the safety and preservation of plant, animal, and human health and the now urgent need for the protection of the environment, standards can and must be used in assuring quality of life for all. Home economists can join in the efforts being made by many to insure that the best interests of all concerned are considered in the development of new standards, the revision of existing ones, and the setting of criteria for mutual recognition or harmonization. Of equal or greater importance is our role in education. Consumers need to become more aware of the goals and objectives of standards and the products and services to which they are attached. In a global marketplace such as ours, we also need to insure that people recognize that standards established for good reason in one country must not be ignored when a product moves beyond the border, nor should we become accustomed to searching for some economic benefit at the expense of unprotected workers or environments in other parts of the world. ☐

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Zarah Chun

On the Job

Profile of Zarah Chun
A Research Assistant in the Field of Native Dress

In February, 1989, I received many opportunities to say, "No, thank you." Would I like to eat a raw mussel out of a dead duck's throat? "No, thank you." How about trying a piece of raw liver from this here skinned seal? "No, thank you." Try sucking some of the fat off this duck skin. "Yes, please." What else could I say? This was part of the special process that I was in attendance to record.

These questions were posed to me while I was working as a research assistant to Dr. Jill Oakes in Sanikiluaq, Northwest Territories. We were joined by cameraman, George Cotter, and Valerie Kosmenko, a fellow research assistant who studied skin boots from Sanikiluaq for the Bata Shoe Museum. Both Valerie and I were in our graduating year as clothing and textile students at the University of Manitoba. The purpose of my job was to document the construction of Inuit-made eider duck parkas. The project included a documentary film, photographs, written research, and collected artifacts.

My official position as a research assistant included photographer, illustrator, writing notes, collecting, and recording sound while the Inuit seamstresses demonstrated their ancient construction techniques. I also functioned as head light holder, tripod holder, clap board clapper, film labeller, extension cord finder, and grocery buyer.

Participant-observation methods were used to record skin preparation, and pattern and garment construction. The bird skin parkas that I collected, illustrated, and photographed were studied by attribute analysis. This was my first research expedition and my first contact with an Inuit community. Although I have visited many foreign countries, I experienced the greatest culture shock with my own country. As we hopped off the airplane onto the treeless Hudson Bay Islands, we were first welcomed by blasting cold wind, and secondly, by the school principal, John Jamieson, who had organized the seamstresses in Sanikiluaq. This was an exciting moment for me. Perhaps, the best way to explain it is as a bit of an ego trip. A feeling of importance crept over me as I was greeted as a researcher from the South. It was a new role for me in which I was enthusiastic, and nervous to fulfill. During these moments of self-importance, I thought that I would be clever and sidestep unloading our equipment by taking photos of the others doing the labor. This action, and events that followed, were to make my ego trip short-lived. As I manoeuvered the camera with bare hands, they quickly turned white. I had cleverly succeeded in freezing my hands for the first time in my life. Yes, I had brought a lot of knowledge with me from the South.

As I sat holding my throbbing hands up in front of me, I turned my head around and watched the plane preparing to leave. I looked back at the graveyard and felt a wave of panic run through my body as I visualized the next ten days. This feeling was soon replaced by one of astonishment. When we were unloading our goods, a

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Zarah Chun graduated from University of Manitoba, Faculty of Human Ecology, with a Clothing and Textiles major in 1989, completed an illustration course in the Fashion Institute of Technology in 1989, completed French immersion studies in Quebec (1990) and the University of Paris (1991). She has travelled extensively collecting art for the Harumi Gallery in Toronto. She is currently conducting preliminary research on regional variation in Inuit clothing decoration for her master's research with Dr. Jill Oakes at the University of Alberta.

Acknowledgments. The Inuit seamstresses and their families are thanked for sharing their time and information generously throughout the research. The community of Sanikiluaq is thanked for their support. The University of Manitoba Northern Studies Committee, Bata Shoe Museum, Canadian Museum of Civilization, Department of Culture and Communication, Department of Education, Canadian Council Exploration Grant, and Inuit Air are sincerely thanked for their financial support.

woman casually walked by carrying a child in her amauti. An amauti is a woman's parka with a large hood in which an infant can be placed. I had seen many photographs of this type of Inuit dress and tradition in my university classes. I never imagined I would be actually seeing one made by Inuit seamstresses.

A few minutes later, I was challenged with the reality of stuffing a dead duck into my mouth. How wonderful participant-observation methods can be! In order to record the bird skin preparation techniques, we were introduced to Silatuk Meeko, Sarah Qittusk, and Mina Mannuk, (elders and seamstresses) and Annie Cooke (interpreter). These women were in the midst of preparing the skins for sewing. It looked like a tea party on the floor, only the dainties were not cookies. They were sucking the fat off the skins. This was done to prevent the fatty oils from deteriorating the future parkas. Before I could figure out how to greet the group, Dr. Oakes was heartily munching on one of the skins, and invited Valerie to do the same. I knew what was coming next. "Would you like to try?", asked Valerie with grease all over her face. "I would be delighted", I replied. Whoops! There goes a feather. I had proceeded to pull one through the back of the skin with my teeth, after being told that this was not to be done. If it had been left to my abilities, we would have had featherless parkas.

During my job as a research assistant, Silatuk demonstrated how to skin a duck in less than three minutes. It was amazing. The end result was a naked duck showing its muscular anatomy attached at the tail to its skin, which was turned inside out. Suddenly, she had a wing feather in-between her teeth as she played it as a Jew's harp. Then Mary began removing the bones from the webbed feet and blowing them up into toy balloons for the children. These emptied feet could also be filled with water for the hunters. Silatuk brought to our attention how to form a throwing dart from three tail feathers compacted into an empty gun shell. The hunters would then use them to knock out ptarmigan. The skin of the duck's head can be stuffed and dragged by a string in order to lure owls as it closely resembles a live mouse. My favorite is that the beaks used to be worn as false fingernails by the ladies. The skin was used for clothing and the duck itself became duck soup.

The actual sewing began without any measurements or patterns — the women used only their hands and eyes. Slowly, an exceptionally warm and strikingly beautiful parka emerged from the pile of skins.

Part of my job as a research assistant included a trek to where the Inuit fish through approximately three feet of ice for sea cucumbers, urchins, and mussels. It turned out to be a winter picnic. Fires were built beside the ice holes, and cooked caribou, bannock, and tea were offered. The bannock was the best food I ate during my stay in Sanikiluaq. I think the reason for this was that it was actually cooked, unlike some other treats I received. I am proud to say that I ate a raw sea urchin straight from the ice hold, and rather liked it. It tasted like cantaloupe.

Working as a research assistant was an enlightening experience; I recorded skills used by fellow Canadians that few people have ever seen before. The education that I received from my Bachelor of Human Ecology degree was a great asset. It provided me with the observational and writing skills needed to record the information accurately. These skills were invaluable. Furthermore, design, construction, and historical Canadian dress courses enabled me to understand various aspects of Inuit clothing. I am very grateful to have had the opportunity to experience the warm hospitality and work with Inuit dedicated to recording their heritage. If you are ever able to travel to the 'North', do not hesitate to go. What you will learn will be invaluable. □

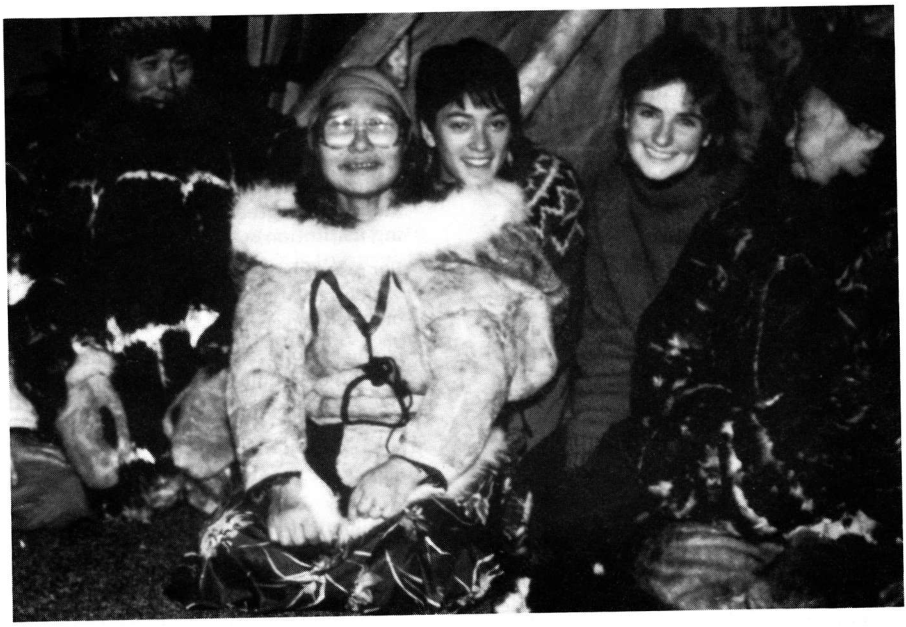

Figure 1. Silatik Meeko, Zarah Chun, Val Kosmenko

Photo Credit: Jill Oakes

Guide for Authors

Canadian Home Economics Journal

Contributions to the Journal

The *Journal* welcomes articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest. Themes and submission deadlines are printed periodically in the *Journal*. Authors are encouraged to submit articles related to the themes but should not feel bound by this directive.

Depending on the nature of the paper, authors may make their submissions to either the general interest articles or to the research (refereed) section.

Contributions that will be considered for inclusion in the research section are: reports about empirical research, review papers related to topics of current interest, research notes on particular issues, or theoretical forums related to theory development in an area of interest to home economists.

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Research (Refereed) Section

The goal of this section of the *Journal* is to provide researchers concerned with the well-being of families and individuals an opportunity to publish in a refereed Canadian journal. An author's submission of a research paper implies that the paper is based on original research and not published elsewhere. All articles are submitted for external review. The criteria used include:

- Focus on a significant problem in home economics.
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- In the case of empirical research, evidence of sound research methodology in the conduct of the research.
- Well organized and written in a scholarly style.
- Form and length which makes publishing feasible.
- Length limited to 2,000 to 3,000 words excluding references which may be as extensive as required.

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- Content that is original, addresses current topics, provides fresh insights, or new information.
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- Appropriate documentation of sources and conformity to the style guides adopted for the *Journal*.
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References for style, format, and spelling are:

- American Psychological Association. (1983). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
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The submission should include the following sections: title page, abstract, text of the manuscript, references, tables (one per page), figures and other graphics (one per page), titles for figures and graphics (on a separate page), acknowledgements (on a separate page).

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Title Page

Because papers are or may be submitted anonymously to reviewers, the following information should appear only on the title page:

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The abstract page follows the title page and starts with the complete title of the paper but does not contain the name(s) of the author(s). It should be:

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The author is fully responsible for correct sentence structure, good English/French, and accurate spelling. In order to ensure that the paper will be understandable to all readers, it should contain a minimum of specialized language.

Style, organization, and format. Scholarly presentation of the material is the responsibility of the author(s). Organize material in a logical sequence, incorporate sub-headings, and, in the case of research or theoretical articles, give enough details of techniques so that other readers can clearly understand the author's ideas or execution of the research. Avoid repetition of ideas in the paper.

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- **Book**
  Fremes, R., & Sabry, Z. (1981). *NutriScore: The rate yourself plan for better nutrition.* Toronto: Methuen.
- **Journal article** (do not abbreviate journal names). Nostedt, E.M. (1984). Networking. *Canadian Home Economics Journal, 34*(3), 130-132.
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  Gurman, A.S., & Kniskern, D.P. (1981). Family therapy outcome research: Knowns and unknowns. In A.S. Gurman & D.P. Kniskern (Eds.), *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 742-775). New York: Brunner/Mazel.
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Tables

Tables should be kept to a minimum and used only when they add value to the paper. Type each table on a separate page, double-spaced with the complete title at the top of the sheet. Limit the number of characters across the table 40, 60 or 87, and organize the table to make efficient use of the space. Give each table a number and refer to it by that number in the text. Indicate the location of tables as follows:

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Figures, including graphs, pictures, line drawings, and flow charts should be included if they will improve clarity, add reader appeal, and are discussed in the text. Graphs and line drawings must be professionally prepared (one per page) in India ink with a mechanical lettering device. The *original* art work (or a glossy photograph of the original) must be submitted for publication. Authors should note that the use of a typewriter to produce the lettering is *not* acceptable.

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Additional Information

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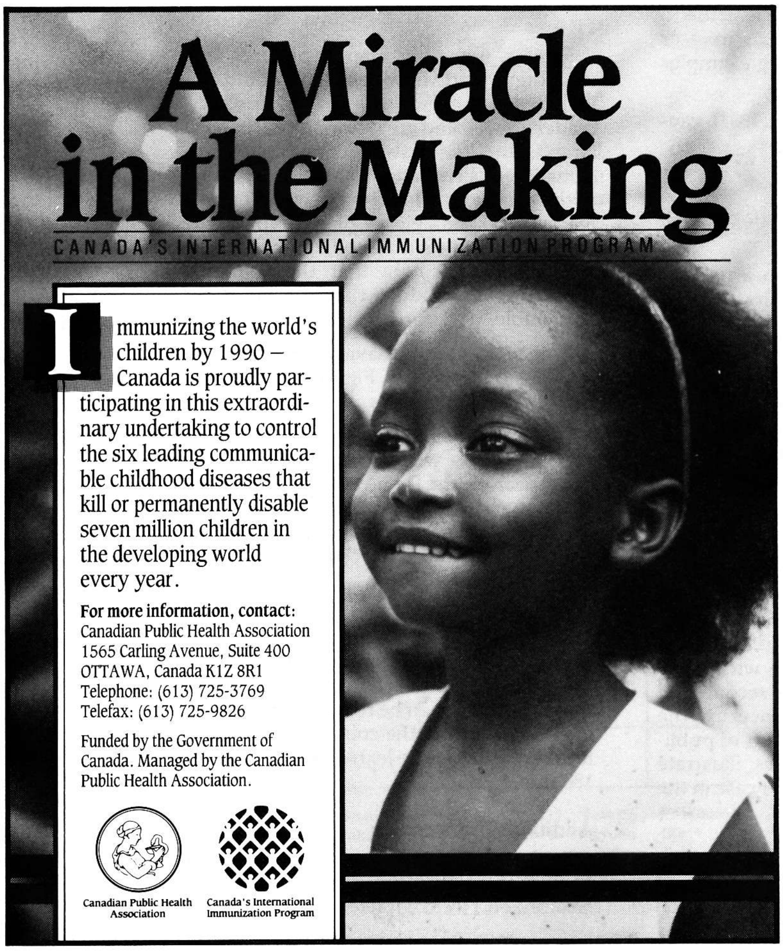
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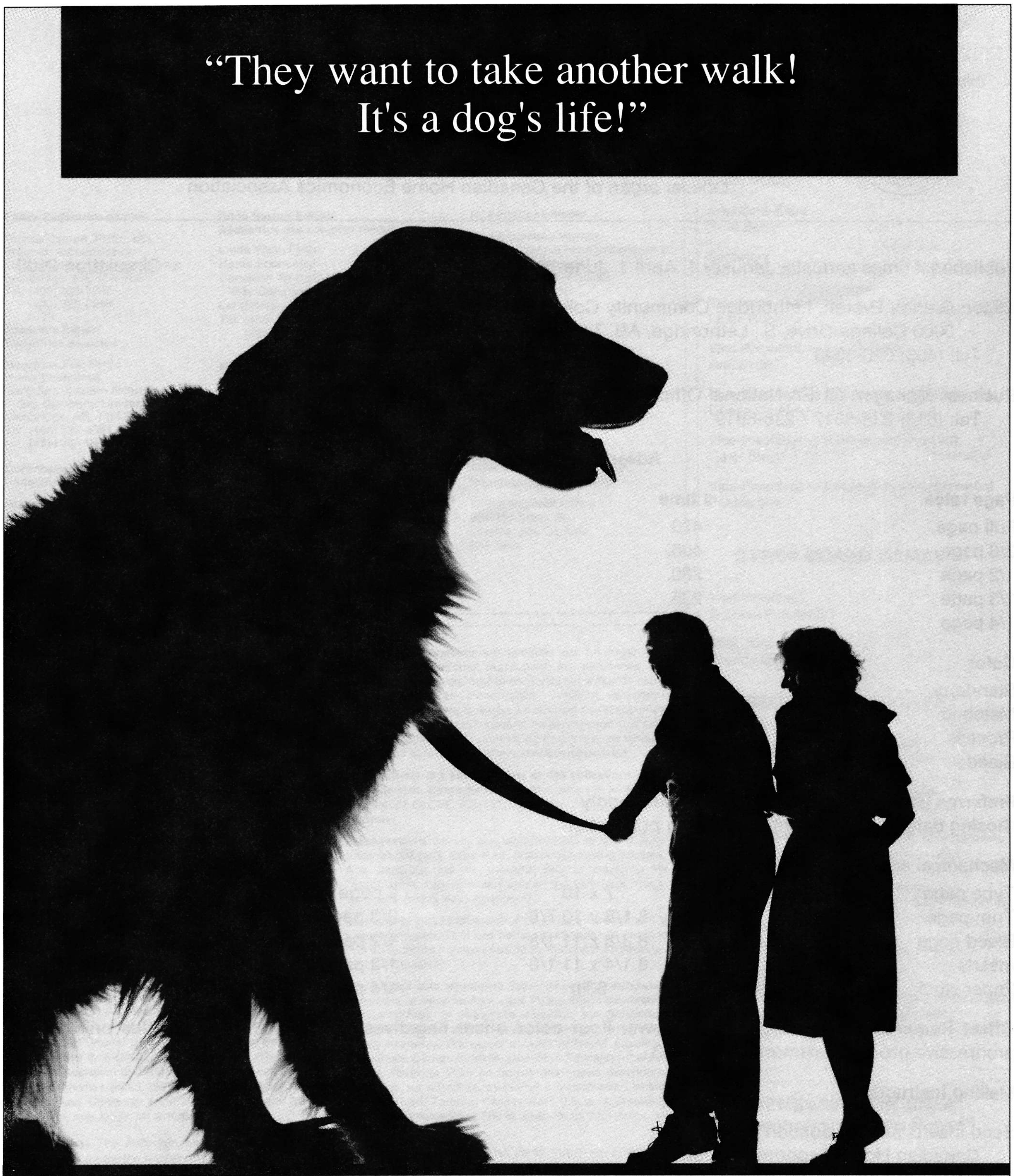

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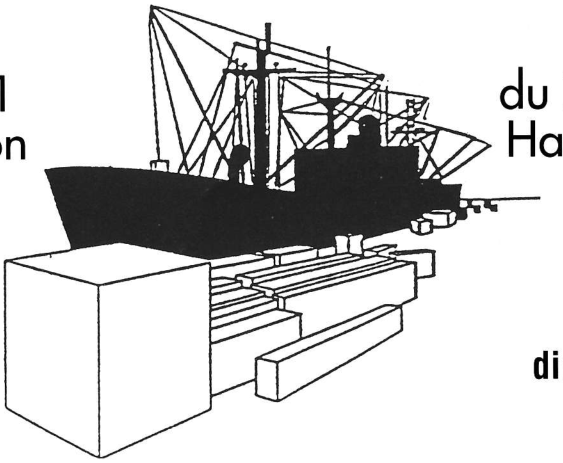

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